

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, INC.

REVUE DE PSYCHOLOGIE APPLIQUÉE

PUBLICATION TRIMESTRIELLE

Directeurs : Dr P. PICHOT et P. RENNES

Cette Revue s'adresse aussi bien aux cliniciens (psychologues ou psychiatres) qu'aux psychotechniciens (orienteurs, psychologues de la profession).

Deux rubriques sont orientées vers l'application : **Techniques et Méthodes en psychologie de la profession** et **Techniques et Méthodes en psychologie clinique**. Ces rubriques ont pour but d'exposer sous une forme précise et concrète les techniques fondamentales, d'éclairer des points douteux, de présenter, même sous forme d'aide-mémoire, des méthodes pratiques de conduite des applications. Elles sont complétées par des **Revue générale** qui permettent de faire le point des recherches dans des domaines intéressant directement l'application. Dans la rubrique **Travaux originaux** prennent place des études d'ordre plus général.

Enfin les autres rubriques **Chroniques et Documentation** et **Analyses** donnent, tant sur le plan technique que sur le plan professionnel, un tableau de la vie quotidienne en psychologie appliquée.

Rédaction et Administration : 15, rue Henri-Heine - PARIS (XVI°)
C. C. PARIS 5851-62

ABONNEMENTS : 1 an, France : 1000 francs — Etranger : 1.300 francs

NUMÉRO SPECIMEN SUR DEMANDE

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

The Professional Journal of the American Psychological Association, Inc.

Volume 7

August, 1952

Number 8

In this Issue

Discussion on Ethics	425
Editorial	
A Little Recent History	
Some Arguments for a Code of Ethics. JOSEPH M. BOBBITT	
Comments on the Training of Graduate Students in Ethics in Psychology.	
RAY C. HACKMAN	
Crooks, Codes, and Cant. CALVIN S. HALL	
On the Applications of the Proposed Code of Ethical Standards for Psychology. HOWARD F. HUNT	
Ethical Standards and Public Responsibility. JEAN WALKER MACFARLANE	
A Written Code of Ethics for the APA. JAMES G. MILLER	
Ethical Standards for Professional Psychologists. CARROLL C. PRATT	
A Code of Ethics is Needed. GILBERT J. RICH	
Psychology: Science and/or Profession. EVERETT CHERRINGTON HUGHES	
Excerpts from Letters Written to the Committee: DOROTHY C. ADKINS, JOHN D. BLACK, CLARENCE W. BROWN, L. E. COLE, STUART W. COOK, DONALD W. FISKE, ARTHUR L. IRION, JOSEPH G. KEEGAN, S.J.; F. THEODORE PERKINS, STANLEY S. SCHWARTZ, AND AUSTIN B. WOOD	
New York Adopts a Code of Ethics. ALBERT J. HARRIS	
Principles of Professional Ethics. Cornell Studies in Social Growth.	
Educational Issues in Psychology. A Report of the February 1952 Conference of the APA Education and Training Board	456
Technical Recommendations for Psychological Tests and Diagnostic Techniques: Preliminary Proposal. APA COMMITTEE ON TEST STANDARDS ..	461
Comment	476
Notehand for Psychologists. WILLIAM S. TAYLOR	
Industrial Psychology on the Undergraduate Level. MILTON L. BLUM	
The Licensing Law in Georgia. FLORENE M. YOUNG	
Across the Secretary's Desk	479
A National Headquarters Building for APA. FILLMORE H. SANFORD	
National Headquarters of the American Psychological Association (picture)	483
Psychological Notes and News	484
Convention Calendar	494

Editor: Fillmore H. Sanford

Managing Editor: Lorraine Bouthilet

Advisory Editors: Rensis Likert, Jean W. Macfarlane, and Arthur W. Melton

THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST is published monthly by the American Psychological Association, Inc., at Prince and Lemon Streets, Lancaster, Pennsylvania. Subscription: \$7.00, single copy \$.75. Communications on business matters should be addressed to Publishers, The American Psychologist, Prince and Lemon Streets, Lancaster, Pennsylvania, or the American Psychological Association, Inc., 1515 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 5, D. C. Address communications on editorial matters to 1515 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

Entered as second-class matter January 12, 1950 at the Post Office at Lancaster, Pa., under the Act of March 3rd, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in paragraph (d-2), section 34.40, P. L. and R. of 1948, authorized August 6, 1947.

OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, INC.

President

J. McV. HUNT
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

President-elect

LAURANCE F. SHAFFER
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York 27, N. Y.

Past President

ROBERT R. SEARS
Harvard University
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Recording Secretary

DOROTHY C. ADKINS
University of North Carolina
Chapel Hill, North Carolina

Treasurer

CARROLL L. SHARTLE
The Ohio State University
Columbus 10, Ohio

Executive Secretary

FILLMORE H. SANFORD
1515 Massachusetts Ave., N.W.
Washington 5, D. C.

Board of Directors

THE PRESIDENT, THE PRESIDENT-ELECT, THE PAST PRESIDENT,
THE RECORDING SECRETARY, THE TREASURER, THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, AND

E. LOWELL KELLY
RENSIS LIKERT
JEAN W. MACFARLANE

ARTHUR W. MELTON
O. HOBART MOWRER
ROBERT L. THORNDIKE

All general communications, inquiries concerning membership, letters concerning dues, subscriptions, and changes of address, announcement of posts, and requests for placement should be directed to:

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, INC.
1515 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington 5, D. C.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

Editor: FILLMORE H. SANFORD, *American Psychological Association*. Contains all official papers of the Association and articles concerning psychology as a profession; monthly.

Subscription: \$7.00 (Foreign \$7.50). Single copies, \$1.75.

JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Editor: J. McV. HUNT, *University of Illinois*. Contains original contributions in the field of abnormal and social psychology, reviews, and case reports; quarterly.

Subscription: \$6.00 (Foreign \$6.50). Single copies, \$1.75.

JOURNAL OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

Editor: DONALD G. PATERSON, *University of Minnesota*. Contains material covering applications of psychology to business, industry, and education; bi-monthly.

Subscription: \$6.00 (Foreign \$6.50). Single copies, \$1.25.

JOURNAL OF COMPARATIVE AND PHYSIOLOGICAL PSYCHOLOGY

Editor: HARRY F. HARLOW, *University of Wisconsin*. Contains original contributions in the field of comparative and physiological psychology; bi-monthly.

Subscription: \$7.00 (Foreign \$7.50). Single copies, \$1.25.

JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

Editor: LAURANCE F. SHAFFER, *Teachers College, Columbia University*. Contains articles in the field of clinical and consulting psychology, counseling and guidance; bi-monthly.

Subscription: \$5.00 (Foreign \$5.50). Single copies, \$1.00.

JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

Editor: ARTHUR W. MELTON, *HRRC, Lackland Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas*. Contains original contributions of an experimental character; monthly.

Subscription: \$14.00 (Foreign \$14.50). Single copies, \$1.25.

PSYCHOLOGICAL ABSTRACTS

Editor: C. M. LOUETTIT, *University of Illinois*. Contains noncritical abstracts of the world's literature in psychology and related subjects; monthly.

Subscription: \$7.00 (Foreign \$7.50). Single copies, \$1.75.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN

Editor: LYLE H. LANIER, *University of Illinois*. Contains critical reviews of psychological literature, methodological articles, book reviews, and discussions of controversial issues; bi-monthly.

Subscription: \$7.00 (Foreign \$7.50). Single copies, \$1.25.

PSYCHOLOGICAL MONOGRAPHS: GENERAL AND APPLIED

Editor: HERBERT S. CONRAD, *U. S. Office of Education*. Contains longer researches and laboratory studies which appear as units; published at irregular intervals, about ten numbers per year.

Subscription: \$6.00 per volume (Foreign \$6.50). Single copies, price varies according to size.

PSYCHOLOGICAL REVIEW

Editor: CARROLL C. PRATT, *Princeton University*. Contains original contributions of a theoretical nature; bi-monthly.

Subscription: \$5.50 (Foreign \$6.00). Single copies, \$1.00.

DISCUSSION ON ETHICS

Because the APA's time of decision about ethical standards is very near, part of this issue of the *American Psychologist* is devoted to a discussion of the proposed code of ethics.

Since 1949, the APA Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology¹ has worked assiduously, responsibly, and democratically to draw up an ethical code based on psychologists' best wisdom concerning ways we should conduct ourselves in our professional affairs. This arduous and high-minded labor has resulted in a code now in such form as to warrant official and decisive consideration by the Association. (The various sections of the code have been published in the *American Psychologist*, 1950, 5, 620-626; 1951, 6, 57-64, 145-166, 428-435, 436-443, 443-452, 626-661.) Sometime during its meetings in Washington on September 2 and 4, the APA Council of Representatives will be confronted with the necessity of taking action on the proposed code.

The Council's action with respect to ethical standards will have a significant effect on American psychology. Psychologists have for the last decade or more struggled with the problem of keeping our burgeoning growth healthy and responsible. We have undertaken the relatively unique and very difficult job of maintaining a creative partnership involving the pure and the applied psychologists. We have been often confused and emotional, often moved to vigorous arguments among ourselves. The historian of a century hence may well record not only confusion, conflict, and human irrationality in our actions during the 1940-1970 span, but he may also find bursts of intelligent self-consciousness, some instances of real social inventiveness and situations in which the advancement of scientific and social values was achieved by genuine valor.

As a part of its attempt to guide itself toward maturity, American psychology is now attempting to formulate and articulate its conscience, and to establish some manner of control over those who violate it. The very attempt to state ethical standards has already had effects on psychology. The final action with respect to an official code of ethics will have real consequences for the growth of all branches and aspects of psychology. It is unlikely that anyone can now describe in detail what will happen if we do or do not adopt a codification of our conscience, but it is easy to formulate questions about possible consequences. Will the

adoption of a code give us inflexible standards in a world permanently changing? Will a code result in our leaning so heavily on institutional control that we stifle individuality and establish a cheap surrogate for individual conscience? Is officially codified morality a move toward undesirable and undemocratic centralization of authority and depersonalization of life? Will the failure to adopt a code represent a failure to help society gain the sort of professional help it needs? Will the refusal to adopt a code of our own making lead to attempts on the part of people outside of psychology to control our behavior? Would that be undesirable? Will the failure to adopt a code cripple our attempts to deal with psychologists who do "bad" things and thereby harm people both inside and outside the profession? Do we really need to do something official about psychologists who behave badly? If so, how do we do it if there are no articulated standards of conduct? If there is no code, will we be able in our handling of ethical problems to temper our natural empathy with the sinner with a mature identification with society?

It is possible to argue that we must honestly confront such questions before we can know what we are doing with respect to ethical standards. It is also possible to argue that many psychologists, properly impressed with the creative job done by the Committee on Ethical Standards and possessing a generally positive attitude to the good term "professional ethics," have devoted more thought to the details of a code than to its over-all effect on psychology. It is a fair assumption that psychologists will feel better about what they do—or do not do—concerning ethics if they face these questions first; if, before they act, they intelligently confront every reasonable argument rationally presented.

This issue of the *American Psychologist* represents an attempt to present to all members of the Association the opinions of some of those who have thought about ethical standards and have been motivated—or persuaded—to commit their thoughts to paper. Early in the year we started to solicit papers on ethics from members known to have worked out certain thoughtful and distinctive points of view. In a number of cases the individuals from whom papers were solicited were suggested by Nicholas Hobbs. They were people from whom Dr. Hobbs had received provocative letters, some supporting, some opposing the work of the Committee.

We did not receive papers from everyone we asked to submit comments. Those that were received are pre-

¹ Members of the Committee are Stuart W. Cook, Harold A. Edgerton, Leonard W. Ferguson, Morris Krugman, Helen D. Sargent, Donald E. Super, Lloyd N. Yepsen, and Nicholas Hobbs, Chairman.

sented in the following pages. In this group also, there is an article by Everett Hughes, professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, presenting a discussion of "occupational models," a discussion not bearing explicitly on the problem of ethical standards but one that will furnish useful background for psychologists' thinking about this aspect of professional development. In addition to solicited comment the present issue contains a selection of excerpts from letters written by various psychologists to the Chairman of the Committee on Ethical Standards. Dr. Hobbs sent us his file of correspondence and we here selected a number of excerpts judged to present a variety of views. The excerpts are printed with the permission of their authors.

The issue also contains an account of the process whereby the New York State Psychological Association adopted a code of ethics and presents the final result of that process, as well as another code, "Principles of Professional Ethics, Cornell Studies in Social Growth," which is in actual use. As an introduction to all of this, we have prepared a very brief account of what the APA has been doing about ethics during the past few years.

The points of view contained in this issue are very probably not representative of the views of all psy-

chologists with respect to ethical standards. The general tenor of the issue may even be a little anti-code although it is a good guess that the vast majority of psychologists are in favor of a code, and furthermore, are in favor of the particular code they themselves have helped to draft. Psychologists who are opposed to something are more often motivated to compose than are those who are happy with the way things are going. This tendency may be reflected in the contents of this issue. Nonrepresentative points of view, however, can still be provocative and can contribute to psychologists' attempts to meet their problems honestly and well. We in the Central Office have a chronic belief in the long-term value of enlightened uncertainty and we persist in our faith that psychologists have great ability both to tolerate and profit by ambiguities.

There may be many other things that could have been said about the general philosophy of a code of ethics and about the specific code proposed by the Committee on Ethical Standards. Our hope is that by devoting a part of this issue of the *American Psychologist* to a consideration of some aspects of ethics we will facilitate members of the APA in their thinking about the proposed code and encourage them to communicate their thoughts to the members of the Council who represent them.—Ed.

A LITTLE RECENT HISTORY ²

Although concern with problems of ethical behavior has been a relatively recent development in psychology, a quick review of some of the APA's history of the past few years may help to show how we have reached the point at which we must now decide on a code of ethics.

In 1938 the APA created a special Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics. The Committee apparently spent its first year simply in getting organized, but in 1939 it was instructed to consider whether or not the APA should have a code of ethics to serve as a guide to its Members and Associates. Although this Committee was not formally empowered to receive and investigate complaints of unethical behavior, it did begin almost immediately to receive such complaints and to deal with them privately and informally. Probably as a result of the fact that it found itself with necessary and important work to do, the Committee

recommended in 1940 that a standing committee be appointed to deal with charges of unethical behavior of psychologists. At the same time as this recommendation was made, the Committee reported, in response to the instructions it had received, that it did not feel that the time was ripe for the Association to adopt a formal code. It did say, though, that the standing committee should, as its work continued, formulate certain rules or principles regarding ethical behavior and submit them to the Association for approval. As a result of these recommendations, the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics was made a standing committee of the APA and for several years it continued to handle complaints on this rather informal basis. That the Association as a whole was still concerned with a code of ethics during these years seems to be shown by its vote, in 1943, that the Committee make an attempt to codify some of its practices on the basis of the cases it had been dealing with.

It was not until 1947 that the Association again seemed to become really worried over ethical problems. In that year the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics strongly recommended that the Association adopt an ethical code. They pointed out that whereas ten years earlier it had been true that a code

² In the interests of conserving space, avoiding repetition, and increasing readability we have decided not to document this material with specific references. Readers interested in locating the original sources may find them in the proceedings of the APA meetings published in the *Psychological Bulletin* from 1938 through 1945 and in the *American Psychologist* from 1946 on.—Ed.

would probably have been premature, in 1947 professional psychology had grown so rapidly that a set of formal standards, especially for those who were active in clinical and consulting psychology, was needed. In making this recommendation the Committee listed several examples of cases in which they, as a Committee, wanted the guidance of the whole Association before coming to a decision. "The present unwritten code," said the Committee, "is tenuous, elusive, and unsatisfactory."

The Board of Directors, this same year, authorized the appointment of a Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology whose goal it would be to draft a code of ethics for psychologists. Since 1947, then, the APA has had two groups dealing with the problems of ethics. One has been a standing committee which has received charges against psychologists and acted on them; the other has been a special committee appointed for the specific purpose of drafting a code. Although they have both been dealing with very much the same general problems, they have worked along as two independent committees.

During the past five years while the Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology has been engaged in its task of developing a code, the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics has continued to handle ethical cases in much the same way as previously. There have been, however, a few refinements in its procedures which have affected its activities. In its 1949 report the Committee recommended several principles which it felt were necessary to guide its actions, and the Council of Representatives approved the following procedures: The Committee may take disciplinary action in cases where there is (a) evidence of a violation of the ordinary legal or moral code, which affects professional work (e.g., dishonesty), and (b) evidence of a violation of a code of another profession if the conduct expected of a psychologist and a member of the other profession is clearly parallel (e.g., revealing a client's confidences). If these two situations do not apply, then the Committee may follow these procedures: if in the judgment of the Committee the conduct of a member is seriously lacking in professional or ethical propriety, the Committee would (a) notify the member and ask him to justify his behavior or to cease acting in this way, (b) publish a note in the *American Psychologist*, describing the type of behavior, but not identifying the violator, and announcing the intention of the Committee to recommend to the Council at its next meeting that it rule that the APA consider this type of behavior unethical and subject to disciplinary action. The ruling was not to go into effect until six months after Council action, and various provisions were made for hearings and full and open investigations, if requested, of the alleged violation.

Although not specifically labeled an ethical decision, one of the Council's actions at the 1949 meeting had clear ethical implications in stating an official APA position on an aspect of professional practice. At that time the Council declared:

We are opposed to the practice of psychotherapy (not to include remedial teaching, vocational and educational counseling) by clinical psychologists that does not meet conditions of genuine collaboration with physicians most qualified to deal with borderline problems which occur (e.g., differential diagnosis, intercurrent organic disease, psychosomatic problems, etc.).

The report of the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics in 1950 went even farther in refining its procedures. Because this report goes into some detail in outlining (a) the methods whereby complaints are received and filed, (b) procedures for handling complaints involving non-members, applicants, and members, (c) handling of the investigation of cases and clearance of cases considered by the Committee, etc., no attempt will be made here to summarize all of the points covered. It might be mentioned, however, that the Committee acquired a "secretary," who is also the Executive Secretary of the Association, to handle much of its more routine work involving correspondence, filing of cases, etc. This report, also, apparently for the first time brought up the ethical problem among applicants to the Association, and declared that such cases were under the jurisdiction of whatever committee or board was appointed to handle membership applications. In other words, this Committee would not deal with charges of unethical behavior on the part of applicants, unless a case were specifically referred to it by the Board of Directors.

That unethical conduct on the part of applicants was becoming a problem is also evidenced by the fact that at its 1951 meeting the Council of Representatives voted to require endorsers of applicants to state whether they knew of any unethical conduct on the part of the applicant.

In 1951 also, on recommendation of the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics the Council voted to mail to all members a statement regarding caution in the use of the name of the APA in advertising and letterheads.

And finally, in 1951 one more important action concerning ethics was taken when the Association approved several revisions in its By-Laws. Until this time there had been no regularized provision for the dropping of a member. The revised By-Laws stipulate that a member may be expelled only after three-fourths of the members of the Council present at its regular meeting have voted for expulsion, and outline the procedures whereby a case against a member is brought to the Council for action. It might be mentioned here also—just to keep the record straight—that under the new

By-Laws the name of the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics became the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct.

Here then is where the Association stands as far as its official actions on ethics and handling of actual cases of unethical behavior are concerned. What about the code of ethics and the Committee which has been working on its development?

After the first general and organizational meetings, the Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology decided to use an empirical rather than a philosophical or logical "armchair" approach in developing the code. Nicholas Hobbs described the Committee's plans in his 1948 article in the *American Psychologist*. He argued that the processes by which the code was developed, rather than the code itself, would be the most significant aspect of it. By following the empirical approach the Committee felt that all psychologists would be called upon to contribute data to the development of a code, all psychologists would become involved in its development, and the final product would be "a code of ethics indigenous to psychology, a code that could be truly lived." Shortly thereafter the Committee proceeded to send out letters to all APA members asking them to submit instances of behavior that involved an ethical choice. Both "positive" and "negative" examples were solicited. Although many members responded to this first request, a follow-up letter was also sent. As a result the Committee collected over a thousand "incidents" to use as raw material in making up the proposed code. The Committee had, by this time, acquired several subcommittees to work on various aspects of the code for various areas of psychological activity. These subcommittees set about to

study the many incidents reported, organize them, and formulate principles of ethical behavior based upon these specific incidents. From time to time, the reports of these subcommittees have been published in the *American Psychologist*, the final group of reports appearing in the November 1951 issue. Throughout its work on the code the Committee has urged all members of the APA to read it, to think about it, and to send the Committee their comments, criticisms, and suggestions for changes. Psychology departments have been encouraged to hold both faculty and graduate student discussions of the code, and the opinions of state psychological associations and other local groups have been solicited. That many psychologists have responded is shown by the many letters received by the Committee and the voluminous correspondence carried on by its Chairman.

Meanwhile, a special subcommittee to work out principles to provide a guide for the sale and use of psychological tests worked rapidly ahead to develop a set of standards in that area. A preliminary proposal of standards was published in the November 1949 *American Psychologist*, and in 1950 the Council of Representatives approved the standards as published in the November 1950 *American Psychologist*. This is the only set of standards that has been formally adopted by the APA. All other aspects of the code are still in the proposal stage.

The Committee is now working to revise the proposed code in the light of the many suggestions it has received. In September 1952 the final revision of the code will be presented to the Council of Representatives for its consideration and for such action as it may wish to take.

SOME ARGUMENTS FOR A CODE OF ETHICS

It is understandable and desirable that there has been much discussion over the nature and content of the ethical standards for psychology. It is somewhat surprising, though, to learn that some psychologists are asking at this time whether or not it is wise and desirable to adopt an ethical code. Such a question is a basic one, much more important than dissatisfaction over one or more provisions of the document. Nobody can claim that the present proposals represent final wisdom. Provision has been made for future changes; it is to be hoped that such changes will in fact be made. Many psychologists feel, however, that failure to adopt any code at all would represent a serious error in judgment concerning the needs of our science and of our profession. The reasons for a

formally stated and officially adopted ethical code are not particularly profound, but the statement of a few of the important ones appears to be desirable at this time.

First, it is clear that psychology is today a profession as well as a scientific discipline. A profession must be characterized in part by a primary concern with the welfare and protection of the public which it serves. Psychology, like any profession, must therefore concern itself with all of the arrangements which assure that the interests of those who are served will be placed above the interests of those who constitute the profession's membership.

It is not enough, among other things, to promote the best possible standards of training and to deal

with the legal problems of certification or licensure. Our profession must, in addition, state clearly and explicitly the ethical frame of reference by which our members choose to govern themselves in the exercise of their professional activities. Failure to formulate and adopt the best code of ethics of which we can conceive would represent a real indication of irresponsibility which would reflect unfavorably upon psychology, not only as a profession, but as a science as well.

Second, to ethically motivated psychologists (and they represent the overwhelming majority), a code of ethics is both reassuring and of great pragmatic value. Without the crystallization of our profession's best thinking concerning ethical problems, each psychologist could solve for himself, through his own thinking and through his own experience, the problems of professional conduct. To proceed in this manner, though, is to deny in part to each new generation of psychologists the experience and thinking of its predecessors. Such an arrangement is wasteful and inefficient. Furthermore, if we fail to state our present concepts of ethical practice, we assure that the ethical concepts of tomorrow or

of ten years hence will not be as refined and as adequate as would otherwise be possible.

Finally, psychology, by adopting a set of ethical principles, can go far toward solving many of the problems of interprofessional relationships. Any two professions can establish a relationship only by developing agreed upon ways of working together. Each profession has, therefore, a right to require some dependable expectations of the other concerning areas of competence, levels of competence, and the ethical controls operating in the other group. Agreed upon uniformities within any one profession represent the basis upon which interprofessional arrangements can be reached. Each profession must decide for itself what others may expect of it as a group; but unless each profession makes it clear what these expectations are, no lasting and satisfactory relationships with other professions can be established.

The above reasons for supporting the adoption of a code of ethics by our profession are not exhaustive. They do appear to the writer, though, to represent a reasonably sufficient justification for our profession taking this step.

JOSEPH M. BOBBITT

COMMENTS ON THE TRAINING OF GRADUATE STUDENTS IN ETHICS IN PSYCHOLOGY

For the past few years the staff of the department of psychology at the University of Maryland has conducted a course concerned primarily with the general topic of psychological science. It is a cooperative endeavor, responsibility for which is shared jointly by the members of the staff. This course is required of all new graduate students who are candidates for the master's degree and can be elected by selected senior majors whose intent it is to continue graduate training in psychology. The primary function of the course is to acquaint new graduate students with the field of psychology and to present to them the manifold problems that attend the practice of professional psychology. Although the mode of presentation of the material and the nature of the contributions required of the individual students have changed materially during the past few years, the content of the course has changed very little.

One of the areas in which the staff has consistently presented material has been ethics in psy-

chology. Several two-hour periods of discussion have been devoted to this topic each year, and the staff has been pleasantly surprised at the generally favorable response accorded it. Our procedure has been to require reasonably extensive preparation prior to each session, the materials being drawn primarily from articles appearing in the *American Psychologist*. These sessions have consistently produced lively discussion among the students, and a variety of good questions directed at the members of the staff. This, of course, is more or less what one might expect, since ethics is a discussion topic which generates many more questions than answers. A better criterion of the interest the topic holds for students, however, is contained in their individual evaluations of the course which are asked for at the last session. Many students mention this topic as being one of special interest to them; as yielding information about problems that they did not know existed; and as contributing markedly to their realization that professional

psychology was something more than a collection of operations performed in a moral vacuum.

We must confess that this topic was introduced into the course only after considerable debate, since certain members of the staff were of the opinion that this material would be uninteresting as well as valueless to students, and we could better spend our time on material with some meat in it. Our first awareness of its significance came

when we observed that students drifted into this topic whenever an opportunity was presented. Our efforts to restrict its discussion met with little success. On the basis of our experience we are forced to conclude that ethics is an important consideration in professional psychology and appears as an important problem to students very early in their graduate training.

RAY C. HACKMAN

University of Maryland

CROOKS, CODES, AND CANT

I am opposed to a code of ethics for psychology. When I first began thinking about the matter back in 1949, I thought I was merely opposed to the type of empirical approach the Committee had decided to adopt in formulating a code. Proceeding without any clear definition of terms or any conceptual framework from which propositions might be derived, the Committee using empiricism has assembled a hodgepodge of particulars most of which have little or nothing to do with ethics as I see it.

After thinking the matter over, I have arrived at the conclusion that I am opposed to any type of code, even one which might be formulated using the best methodological principles. I am opposed to a code because I think it plays into the hands of crooks on the one hand and because it makes those who are covered by the code feel smug and sanctimonious on the other hand. The crooked operator reads the code to see how much he can get away with, and since any code is bound to be filled with ambiguities and omissions, he can rationalize his unethical conduct by pointing to the code and saying, "See, it doesn't tell me I can't do this," or "I can interpret this to mean what I want it to mean." I am convinced that laws are made for the benefit of the lawless and not for the lawful and that the "Psychologists' Code" if it is adopted will give aid to our errant brothers by suggesting opportunities for shady practices. Decent mature people do not need to be told how to conduct themselves. This does not mean that even decent mature people do not have their lapses from grace, but they always know when they are violating values of decency. Yet in spite of this knowledge they transgress. Ethical standards will not help such people to be more decent since it is not in-

formation they need but more efficient inner controls. Accordingly, I am convinced that the adoption of a code for psychologists will actually do more harm than good to our profession.

There is another side to the question, a less important one perhaps, but one which makes me feel uncomfortable. From intrapersonal and interpersonal experiences I think I know a little about the moral failure of man and how he tries to rationalize his failure by clothing himself in the hypocritical and sanctimonious garments of rites and prayers. He projects an image of his own conscience before which he makes ritualistic obeisances so that he can say, "See how good I am." This is cant. I am sure that, if and when a code is adopted, thousands of psychologists will glow with inner pride because they have a graven image which they can show to the world as tangible proof of the highmindedness of our profession. This graven image will be our Sunday god which is paraded through the streets as a public exhibition of our moral purity. Occasionally we shall turn up a heretic and crucify him for the purpose of purifying our professional souls. How clean and righteous we shall all feel then!

I think I can accept everything about man except his hypocrisy, since it is hypocrisy which alienates man from himself. Man alienated from himself is prevented from laying the foundation for rational and mature conduct through self-discovery.

If it is necessary to have a device by which the most flagrant miscreants can be ejected from the APA, I would suggest a simple statement on the application blank to this effect: "As a psychologist, I agree to conduct myself professionally according to the common rules of decency, with the under-

standing that if a jury of my peers decides that I have violated these rules, I may be expelled from the Association." Since every mature person knows in his heart what the common rules of decency are, it is not necessary to spell them out, and in fact any attempt to spell them out, as I have argued, would have had consequences.

Finally, I would suggest that the graduate departments of psychology, who have the power to decide who shall become psychologists, should exercise this power in such a manner as to preclude the necessity for a code of ethics.

CALVIN S. HALL
Western Reserve University

ON THE APPLICATIONS OF THE PROPOSED CODE OF ETHICAL STANDARDS FOR PSYCHOLOGY

I am writing these remarks, in my capacity as a "private citizen" of the APA, to communicate some reservations I have about the application of the proposed code of ethical standards for psychology. If my reservations primarily concerned the specific content of a few of the sections, or if I wished to suggest some minor changes in wording or style here and there, I would communicate directly with the committee which has been developing the code. As it happens, however, my major reservations actually center about the possible ways in which the code might be employed by the APA. I believe that such concerns, since they relate to matters of general policy, fall more within the province of the APA membership than within the province of the committee.

My reaction to the code, as a description of the general ethos of institutionalized psychology, tends to be quite favorable. It captures what appears to me to be the general spirit, both ethical and practical, with which we approach professional problems. Most of the sections seem to describe fairly accurately what a plurality of us, at least, usually do as well as what most of us would probably consider to be acceptable practice. I think well enough of the proposed code to recommend it as a reference to help students become acculturated to the folkways, taboos, and values of professional psychology.

However, if the code is to serve in public relations, and if it is to be distributed to other professional groups and to laymen to acquaint them with our manners and with our standards, we should scrutinize it carefully. In this connection, I would be somewhat happier if matters of good sense, good taste, and common courtesy could be separated from matters of ethics. For example, principle 6.16-1 provides that the psychology teacher should advise students to take courses on the

basis of the students' needs and not to maintain enrollment in his courses; principle 6.16-2 says, "A professor with special research resources should avoid using those resources in ways which attract students away from colleagues with whom they have more appropriately planned to work"; principle 6.13-1 urges psychologists to evaluate a student only when they have the relevant facts about him and to state that they have insufficient information to make the evaluation when this is, in fact, the case; principle 4.11-1 provides that, "The psychologist is responsible within the limits of his knowledge, competence, and facilities, for planning his research in such a way as to minimize the possibility that his findings will be misleading"; and principle 4.13-1 says, "The psychologist should never report data falsely nor discard without explanation data which may modify the interpretation of the results and conclusions he publishes."

These examples represent the sort of thing we might consider deleting from the code if it is to be distributed to the public. We all know that some psychologists are incompetent, some foolish, some grasping, and that some may be downright dishonest. The ethical "common laws" of the academic-scientific tradition and the American culture adequately proscribe the misbehaviors implied in the principles given above, however. If we, as an organization, feel that we must specifically proscribe such gross and simple-minded misconduct once again in our professional code, the uninitiated but critical reader may conclude that the APA is unduly afflicted with human frailty and that psychologists may not be trustworthy. Such a reader might be inclined to react as I did upon reading items like these and suspect that if psychologists have to be *told* not to do such things, it may do no *good* to tell them. I would argue that it would

be wiser to omit such routine prohibitions from our public code, and to let natural selection take care of our chronic offenders. The word about them will get around fast enough.

One other aspect of the code, in its public relations role, disturbs me. As I understand it, the code is supposed to epitomize and convey at least some of our ideals, aspirations, and traditions. The inclusion of the term "ethical" in the title implies this intent. If such be the case, I am somewhat concerned about the "end justifies the means" flavor that occasionally creeps into the principles. One of the clearest instances appears in principle 4.14-1 which says, "Disagreement with or dislike for the nature or implications of his research results is not sufficient reason for the psychologist to withhold from publication findings which he knows to be of value for the development of psychology as a science or for the welfare of the general public." This is a worthy standard, as is. But section A of the same principle says, "It is recognized that the psychologist may, upon occasion, anticipate that publication of his research may have social effects which he could not countenance in terms of his personal ethics and values, *and he may be justified in withholding publication on these grounds.* However, he should never take this step for reasons of personal gain or under duress from others. Where he is considering withholding publication on the basis of his personal ethics and values, he should always take the precaution of seeking the advice of competent colleagues before acting" (*italics mine*). Though section B provides that the psychologist, in such a case, is obliged either to do additional research to minimize the possibility that his results will be misunderstood or misused or to urge others to do such research, the "end justifies the means" flavor of section A is by no means erased. The reader may easily retain the impression that psychologists think it is "all right" to suppress information as long as the suppression is in the service of unspecified "higher" standards and is not done simply for money or in order to avoid pain, as long as the responsibility for the decision is shared.

This principle probably reflects quite accurately the way in which psychologists usually *do* handle conflicts of this sort. For this reason, the principle may be acceptable as reference material for the acculturation of our students, provided enough psychologists agree to it. Psychologists do seem to

employ a sort of watered-down pragmatism in their day-to-day ethical decisions. But to imply in any way, in a public document, that our everyday compromises represent any sort of ideal or aspiration would be to undermine what is finest and best in our tradition as scientists. If I were a hostile outsider, if I did not have first-hand knowledge of the soul-searching some of my colleagues have endured in deciding what to do with their research findings, I would be inclined to suspect that one could not depend upon the published psychological research to give a balanced picture of the status of a particular topic unless one first screened the authors for their political, humanistic, and religious prejudices. This is a serious risk to take, wittingly, if our right of free inquiry into any matter, regardless of its consequences, is to be preserved.

We all realize that the prejudices of experimenters may influence their findings in one way or another, but let us not institutionalize this by making it "all right" by official APA standards. After all, the only antidote to such personal biases is free inquiry by anybody into anything. Historically speaking, the right to free inquiry is sufficiently tender and exotic that we should avoid anything which might have the unfortunate effect of jeopardizing it, either directly or indirectly.

In summary, then, I would say let us not confuse the description, for ourselves, of what we usually *do* do, with the public statement, by the APA, of what we *aspire* to do. And let us not dedicate much if any, of our public code to urging our members to be tactful, smart, sensible, and honest. These virtues should go without saying; I think we actually may harm ourselves by prescribing such commonplaces in detail.

I see the code as having quite another and equally important function—that of specifying the minimum acceptable standards of professional conduct for the guidance of the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct of the APA. One section, that on the distribution of tests and diagnostic aids, has already been adopted as official policy of the APA by the Council of Representatives. Soon the other sections will be considered for similar action. We seem to be approaching a choice-point in the matter of professional standards; let us approach it carefully.

Some specification of minimum acceptable standards of professional conduct is almost mandatory to safeguard the public interest. We are more

likely to end up with a set of standards satisfactory to us if we work them out ourselves, on our own volition, than we are if we let things slide. Other professional and civic groups might feel obliged to enact policy and legislation for us and about us if we default. Both the need for such standards and our self-interest in developing them are clear. Does the proposed code meet this need?

Let us consider the answer to this question under two headings: *First*, to what extent does the code specify *minimal* standards? And *second*, does the code specify what these minimal standards are by *indicating clearly what is forbidden* (i.e., what acts or failure to act constitute a violation of the minimal standards)? To my eyes, the code appears weak on both counts.

To what extent does the code specify minimal standards? Does the code restrict itself to simple, legal minima or does it also extend over into optima and maxima? As I mentioned before, some of the principles refer to matters of good taste, courtesy, and good sense. While it is desirable that psychologists have these attributes, I am not at all sure that we would want departures from the ideal in these regards to be the basis for adverse action by the ethics committee. "Unethical" seems to me to be too strong a word to apply to stupidity, tactlessness, and ordinary discourtesy. "Unethical" may also be too strong a word to apply to failure to achieve some of the perfections specified by other principles in the code. For example, principle 2.22-1 says, "The psychologist has the responsibility of taking a definite stand in establishing his function in relation to other professions." Section A of this principle states, "A psychologist should cooperate with other professional persons and groups and accept administrative policies and decisions, but he should not accede to dictation which may interfere with professional standards of psychology or with his freedom to pursue his profession." While this principle was intended, no doubt, to encourage psychologists to establish and maintain their professional identity and integrity in instances of interprofessional conflict, it also implies that failure to make a strong enough attempt, or a successful attempt, may be a dereliction of duty and, strictly speaking, unethical.

I think that most of us would consider such a failure unfortunate and, perhaps, not representative of the best to which psychology as a profession aspires. But would we consider it "unethical"

in a strong sense, on a par with splitting fees and falsifying data, as a basis for action by the ethics committee. These latter sins probably violate what most of us consider a reasonable minimum professional propriety; most of us would probably consider that they are serious enough to warrant a reprimand or even expulsion from the APA. Would we feel the same way about "violations" of principle 2.22-1 and other principles of the same kind? The point of all this is that any code we adopt to provide the ethics committee with a set of minimum standards should distinguish explicitly between minimum standards and ideals, hopes, or traditions. If this distinction is unclear or left out, many respectable psychologists, by ordinary standards, might be open to the charge of "unethical behavior" when all they are showing is typical human frailty or lapses in good taste or good sense. Then the ethics committee would have quite a time in deciding which of the "unethical" psychologists to take action on and which to leave alone. Under these circumstances, the ethics committee and not the legislative code would be defining minimal acceptable standards.

Does the Code specify what these minimal standards are by indicating clearly what is forbidden (i.e., what acts or failures to act constitute a violation of the minimal standards)? I think we all would agree that violation of the minimal standards should be defined by acts rather than by tests based on attitudes and motives, awkward though this may be at times. Contemporary history underlines this point sufficiently so that further comment is unnecessary.

Unfortunately, a number of the principles are somewhat ambiguous and subject to wide but legitimate differences in interpretation as to exactly what is forbidden. For example, principle 6.42-1 states, "Students should be admitted to courses, and permitted to continue study in a field, only if there is good reason for believing that they have legitimate reasons for taking the course, that they have the theoretical and technical background needed, and that they are likely not to misuse what they learn." Section A says, "Instruction in techniques should be such as to give the student full awareness of limitations in his skill and knowledge." Though I agree that the positive goal of this principle is admirable, we might have considerable difficulty in agreeing on what constituted a violation of it. What is a legitimate reason: a desire to

learn; a desire to get technical training in order to make money and be self-supporting; a desire to get technical training in order to help people; a personal hunger for prestige? What is sufficient theoretical and technical background: enough to enable the student to keep up with the class; enough to enable the student to contribute actively and wisely to class discussions; or enough to reduce the antecedent probability that he will apply his knowledge in a routine, wooden, and subprofessional manner? How can we screen students, without violating their privacy, to make reasonably sure that they will not misuse what they learn? And what constitutes misuse: when a student uses a technique to make money; when he uses his knowledge somewhat unwisely and wastes his time; when he uses knowledge clumsily and with only borderline competence? The present form of the code provides no guides which clearly answer these questions.

Even so, this principle may have some practical consequences. Some psychologists appear to believe that training in therapeutic or diagnostic methods, for example, should be given only to advanced students with a great deal of background in general psychology. And preference is extended, by these psychologists, to those students who are oriented more toward research than toward service. One justification for this position is that the standard diagnostic and therapeutic methods have insufficient validity to stand alone as full-fledged professional techniques and that if they are used in a routine and mechanical manner, unfortunate results can follow. Such a view would imply that prerequisite requirements for courses can quite legitimately be employed to help police the practice of psychology by restricting the dissemination of technical knowledge. It implies that, for the most part, only those students who already know enough to recognize the weaknesses of particular techniques and who place science ahead of service should be permitted to learn much, in detail, about diagnostic and therapeutic techniques.

In contrast, other psychologists, including myself, believe that a desire to learn is a sufficient reason for taking a course and that the role of prerequisites is to ensure that all the students will have a fighting chance to profit from the course and keep up with it. This view implies that the way to police the practice of diagnosis and therapy,

to follow our example, is through regulation of its consumption or sale and not through withholding technical information—a practice that comes dangerously close to intellectual censorship. Section A, if followed competently, should provide reasonable safeguards against misuse of technical knowledge.

I do not believe it either wise or proper for proponents of either position to support their arguments by calling the opposition's view "unethical" on the basis of principle 6.42-1, or others that are like it in construction. Such a practice only confuses what is already an important and complex issue. Nor do I believe it wise for the APA to have official statements of minimum acceptable standards so written as to encourage or even permit such an extension of the term "ethical" in its strong sense. I question whether even simple statements of APA policy should be so loosely written.

By stating the principles in terms of ideals to be achieved rather than sins to be avoided, we do "accentuate the positive" and encourage people to virtue. This is good educational practice and is entirely appropriate if the code is used only for purposes of acculturating budding psychologists. But this very property of the code may also lead to failure to define "crime" tightly enough. The ethics committee would have a difficult time deciding what constituted a violation of many of the principles as they now stand. Even with carefully written laws, such determinations are hard enough, particularly in borderline cases. The ethics committee needs something much tighter than the present code if it is to function effectively and safely.

My selection of principles to illustrate points here and there does not prove the points, of course. My selection might have been biased; and the principles are quoted out of context. Proof of the points must rest upon the argument and upon what the code actually contains, taken as a whole. But the reservations I have expressed could not be satisfied by minor revisions in the text of the code. They relate more to the application of the code than to the text as such. I hope the APA will give as serious and careful consideration to the application as it does to the text. The two are interdependent and cannot be considered separately.

HOWARD F. HUNT

University of Chicago

ETHICAL STANDARDS AND PUBLIC RESPONSIBILITY³

The opening sentence in the code is a statement of a credo which boldly declares "*the worth of a profession is the value of its contribution to the welfare of man.*" No other credo, perhaps, is socially defensible in a culture which operates under democratic ideals. That this credo is not merely a lip service slogan is shown both by the values enunciated in the principles appearing in the code and by the concrete incidents supplied by the members upon which the code is built.

Such a welfare-of-man credo may be due to the fact that psychologists in the main are by their occupation and training more sensitive to man's needs, more self-conscious, more concerned with conscious and unconscious values than other scientific and professional groups—or maybe we are just more neurotic. For in contrast to this credo it has been frequently stated by scientists, and by their detractors as well, that the only relevant goal of science is the amoral pursuit of truth, and that considerations of social welfare are therefore nonrelevant. Probably all of us operate on the assumption, as the code frequently states or implies, that the pursuit of truth is in long time terms a social welfare undertaking. Yet it is possible that the discovered truths of science may disrupt the social mores that give a society stability or may induce changes faster than a culture can absorb and integrate them, or discovered facts may find applications in ways that are destructive of, rather than contributory to social welfare. Aware that scientific knowledge may bring in its wake power advantages, the code is attempting to force inspection of the responsibilities which go with knowledge and the power it brings.

In this era of drastic conflict, power clashes, chauvinistic hysteria, and pervasive anti-intellectualism, it is well that we be articulate to ourselves at least, about the fact that both scientific knowledgeability and ethical responsibility are characteristics we seek in ourselves and fellow members and that neither characteristic alone is sufficient.

As the introduction to the code points out, the responsibility rests concretely upon each individual member of the Association. As psychologists we know that each of us will act no more or less responsibly than our scientific training, our character

structure, and our system of values make possible. Any code, therefore, must be (as this proposed one largely is) an ideal to strive toward, an educational device to force awareness of our values, and it must be culturally central enough and realistic enough to be striven for. As I read the code it appears much more concerned with the positive values of responsibility than with a set of rules to catch those with marginal judgment and competence or those with characterological defects. Most of the quoted incidents which highlight unsound practices have implicit in them the inference of responsible standards. There are a few incidents, it is true, which exude the virtue of the contributors under the guise of an assault upon the lack of virtues of others which seem—to the nasty minded clinician making these comments—to be punishment of the projected deficiencies of the contributors. But that incidents of this sort are infrequent points to a healthy, not a compensatory and punitive, code. One can infer from it that psychologists are relatively mature persons or alternatively that Dr. Hobbs and his committee "unethically" suppressed such incidents. The first inference is pleasanter.

The code lists the major obligations of psychologists under three headings: (a) as a scientist, (b) as a practitioner, and (c) as a citizen. A fourth heading could well be added to this general section, namely, the responsibilities of the psychologist as a teacher, this over and above the section devoted specifically to the ethical problems in the teaching area. Many of us are teachers and upon our skills in teaching the basic values of research and the base for competence and responsibility in practice and upon our own intellectual, personal, and interpersonal integrity, or lack thereof, rests a heavy responsibility for promoting the brand of professional ethics we shall have.

Let us look in turn at each of the three categories of responsibility listed in the code.

As a Scientist

He must be committed to increasing man's knowledge of man. He must follow the tenets of scientific method; namely, (a) be objective, (b) show integrity in his procedures, and (c) fully report his work. I should like to see inserted at this point some such statement as "so that his work is capable of replication and his findings open to

³ Adapted from a paper read at an APA symposium, September 1951.

verification or modification, so that his work is open to criticism of others, stimulation of new ideas in others, and so that his findings when verified are available to the fund of substantiated knowledge which is the goal of scientific method." While it is unequivocally true that findings depend upon method, as a young and therefore a methodologically preoccupied discipline, we often, in my opinion, fail to stress adequately the goals of science, namely, verified knowledge and theoretical cogency and economy, which will lead to more research, more verified knowledge, sharpened theory, and then more research, and so on. A major responsibility is, therefore, to keep in mind the goals of science which scientific method is to serve and be on guard lest certain procedures take on (even when inappropriate) a vested interest compulsion which may sterilize scientific inquiry. Let me illustrate with an example in my own field, namely clinical and personality research, which is both in the very beginnings of the pioneering stage and additionally is concerned with complex multifactor and molar problems. Its need for objectivity is colossal. Yet careful description and documentation may at this stage yield more cogent and fruitful hypotheses and a richer fabric of interrelated facts than objective measurement until such time as we have discovered the relevant dimensions to measure. Additionally, the well-established techniques of differential psychology, for example, designed largely to compare groups, have led to many footless research undertakings in the clinical field where the problem attacked was concerned with patterns of intrapersonal organization rather than with group comparisons.

No one can disagree with the code's statement that the scientist must go where his data take him and must be on guard against social and institutional pressures and against his own needs (status, promotional, and theoretical, I assume) to arrive at particular findings. I would add also that he be on guard lest his methods become an end in themselves and not a means to the solution of vital problems.

One other comment about a reality problem arising from the tenet of full reporting of research work. The limitations of publication outlets under accelerating membership and manuscripts and high costs preclude full publication at present. That is a matter which must be handled in part on an administrative level, but better skills in condensing

should help somewhat and full reporting to colleagues should fulfill part of this obligation. The restrictions upon much government research (possibly more than is necessary) means that much of it is not fully publishable. Problems, too, are met by research workers employed by an industry which wishes to secure the competitive advantage which suppression of research findings may bring. Our welfare-of-man credo which is embedded in a competitive society appears to offer us more dilemmas than it does to other professional groups. The research chemist sells his services to industry without loss of ethical status. In many industries the research worker has contributed and is encouraged to contribute to basic science, although his research results may not have early or full publication. In fact, since promotions in industry do not depend upon publications, which often motivates the premature publications of many faculty folk, we may even learn from this some of the values of restraint. Permit me a sassy comment. I looked in vain in the code for a principle which declares that *it is highly ethical not to publish*—a poorly conceived, poorly executed, poorly written manuscript upon something of little or no theoretical or practical importance.

As a Practitioner

The code lists several responsibilities of the psychologist as a practitioner. It states that he should strive at all times to maintain the highest standards of service. The code purposely does not specify what the highest standards are since they will increase as more scientific knowledge becomes available and as the practitioner develops more skills and, through experience, more wisdom and practical knowledge. I should like to see in the code some suggestions to implement maintaining highest standards such as a responsibility to keep informed about the literature, periodic refresher courses, the participation in discussion groups which evaluate new techniques, new practices, baffling problems, etc.

The code states that since in his work the practitioner may touch intimately the lives of others, he bears a heavy social responsibility of which he should be ever cognizant. To discharge this responsibility he must repeatedly come to terms with his hierarchies of loyalties involving individuals, society, his own personal needs and those of his

profession. A principle is stated as follows, "The welfare of the profession and the individual psychologist are subordinate to the welfare of the public." Perhaps my autonomy needs motivate me but I should like to see that changed to, "The welfare of the profession and the individual psychologist should be consonant with the welfare of the public." This I believe removes an implicit assumption that the welfare interests of each are somehow competitive which I believe is not, or should not be, true.

For the practitioner, the code states that the responsibility of most weight is the welfare of the client. Again I raise the question whether the competitive implication is necessary or wise. For example, in clinical practice the welfare of a child who is brought for help must also be conceived in terms of the welfare of his family, his peers, and be consonant with the basic values which characterize the culture in which he lives. In my opinion, these welfares are not essentially competitive and the welfare of the child can be adequately and realistically fostered only by adequate appreciation of their essential consonance.

Another principle states that the practitioner must validate his procedures so that the public may be assured of dependable service. This is an inescapable demand about which I should like to comment. It raises the many-sided dilemmas involved in trying to synthesize the already established probability statements of science and the concrete situation or individual with which the practitioner must deal. Let us look at the situation of the practicing clinician as he practices his art of synthesis. Suppose he has a device which distinguishes psychotics from nonpsychotics at the one per cent level of confidence. It gives him information about psychotics and nonpsychotics in general and a first best clinical guess about his patient, but a very low level guess since the null hypothesis is not designed to predict for any given in-

dividual. It is a better guess, of course, than if no validation assessment had been made on the device. The meaning of the data on a given patient derived by one device has to be evaluated in terms of data derived from several devices and synthesized by the clinician who in a very real sense is the real tool and no better tool than his training, experience in practice, critical honesty, and constant self-checking make him. So he has the responsibility of making predictions and checking on his predictive worth. He has the additional responsibility when using his various devices to test their predictive values *for individuals*, and not be lulled into thinking he has much when he deals with probability findings of low order.

One other thing I should like to see in the code is that form of responsibility which involves willingness of the practitioner to admit limitations of competence whether they be derived from cultural prejudice or from lack of training or experience in dealing with a specific problem. As an example, there is an item in the code which says he must not refuse to give competent service to a client because of religion, politics, or ethnic derivation. I would feel it would be better stated: "If he is reluctant to treat a client because of religion, politics, ethnic derivation, etc., he has the responsibility to refer him to someone free of his cultural bias or specific incompetence."

I find that I have covered just part of the items in the first nine pages of the code! I suspect that what I have done is merely try to come to terms with my own values—certainly one of the important functions of code for each of us. And may you have as much stimulation as I've had when you study it! The power of an ethical code for this Association derives from the cumulative effects of the enriched perceptions of each member which in turn elicit sounder professional practices.

JEAN WALKER MACFARLANE
University of California

A WRITTEN CODE OF ETHICS FOR THE APA

It is not mere coincidence that archeologists and historians are agreed that civilization advanced when Hammurabi wrote the first code in cuneiform on a stone obelisk. The British have muddled through for several centuries with their "unwritten constitution," but it has not gained the respect

or probably been as effectively democratic as our written American constitution.

A group forestalls star chamber convictions by stating publicly in advance what it stands for and what it opposes. *Ex post facto* actions are contrary to the spirit of democracy. Until the APA

Council officially approves a written code of ethics, the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct will be forced to continue its uneasy tradition of making only *ex post facto* judgments. Up to now it has never been able to distinguish professionally and scientifically acceptable conduct from unacceptable activities until charges have been brought in a specific case. Over the Supreme Court Building in Washington is inscribed "Equal Justice Under Law," which subtly protests against an earlier era of irresponsible monarchy when the whims of the king and his agents were the state and the law. No one knew when he was going to transgress because there were no guides for action. Until the APA has a written code of ethics it will be hard for any psychologist, no matter how conscientious, to determine what sort of advertising, what sort of action toward clients, what sort of care of animals, what sort of instructions to subjects, or what sort of use of tests is acceptable to his colleagues and considered in the best interests of society.

Written codes limit the individual initiative of psychologists. That is true, but it is less important than the fact that codes protect those whom psychologists influence.

Written codes make for rigid, legalistic interpretations of action. Not necessarily, if the administering committee is humane, wise, and judicial. And even rigidity, which can be avoided, is better than capriciousness.

A written code is arbitrary and inflexible. Perhaps. But it is also possible that it will be more carefully considered and more amenable to change than an unwritten code. The unwritten taboos of a society often lurk after their function dies.

In recent centuries lawyers have realized the democratic importance of recording the common will. In recent decades major American professional and trade organizations have recognized the same fact. So should the APA.

JAMES G. MILLER
University of Chicago

ETHICAL STANDARDS FOR PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGISTS

If the aims of the APA, in addition to the advancement of psychology as a science, now include the support of psychology as a profession and as a means of promoting human welfare, it is reasonable to suppose that an increasingly large amount of solemn thought will be directed towards questions of manners and morals. The Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology, for example, has, already published in this JOURNAL a preliminary report which runs to more than 75,000 words (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1950, 5, 620-626; 1951, 6, 57-64, 145-166, 427-452, 626-661).

Concern with the professional ethics of clinical and practicing psychologists is natural enough and probably inevitable—perhaps more so than in the case of the American Medical Association. There are limits, however, to the amount of effort which should be spent on problems of ethics even though these problems are of importance. Too much preoccupation with ethical and professional standards of conduct may defeat its own purpose by making moral confusion worse confounded.

However strong may be the faith that there are absolute and eternal verities in the domain of ethics—a faith which I am inclined to hold to, at least on

Sundays—it must nevertheless be recognized that empirical evidence still supports more solidly the view that morals are relative to time, place, and circumstance. If such is the case, then all standards of conduct for the practice of psychology must be regarded as ever changing, and all ethical codes as subject to reinterpretation by each new generation in the light of advances made by psychology as a science and in accordance with changes in the climate of social opinion. Acceptable conduct today in the administration and interpretation of a Rorschach may be frowned upon tomorrow, and the next day a group of clinicians in Chicago may insist that the greater density of frowns in New York is a sign of moral depravity in the East.

The members of the APA Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology might profitably consider restrictions which they could impose on their work while still trying to promote high standards of professional conduct among American psychologists. The following ideas are offered for whatever they may be worth.

1. Just so long as psychology as a profession is more of an art than a science, just so long will the

need for strict ethical standards be felt. But therein lies a paradox. If success in clinical practice depends more on tact than on fact, who can decide when innocent and skillful reconstruction of evidence has been immoral? Are Christian Scientists and psychoanalysts immoral? These are tough questions, and at present a good many members of the APA would regard them as unanswerable. Yet they cry out for an answer if a practical code of ethics is to be formulated for practicing psychologists. What needs to be done right now might therefore best be postponed until tomorrow.

In the meantime the greatest service which the members of the Committee could render psychology might be to lend their moral support (a) to research and (b) to the restriction of professional practice by members of the APA to those areas in which reliability and validity are high. For it would be a dubious service to the science of psychology if an elaborate code of professional ethics were to lead the public to believe that clinical psychology had possession of infallible skills which upon critical examination turned out to be compounded of an unpredictable mixture of trial-and-success and trial-and-error. As professional psychology becomes more of a science than an art, the need for codification of ethical standards will be correspondingly reduced.

2. Those who frame the Hippocratic oath for professional psychologists might follow the example of those wise men who wrote the Constitution of the United States. In the formulation of standards of conduct, brevity and generality are safer than specification of minute detail. The interpretations of the Constitution today are markedly different in many cases from those handed down fifty years ago, and yet the spirit of the Constitution still guides the thinking and decisions of the Supreme Court. The best code for practicing psychologists today, and for that matter the best code for all time, might be the formulation of an oath which deliberately omits reference to any specific incidents. "I will only make use of those methods and facts which, according to my ability, I consider to be for the benefit of my clients and of society, and will abstain from whatever is harmful. Into whatever homes or hospitals I enter I will go only for the benefit of my patients. I will

neither make nor show how to improve any harmful devices whatever, nor suggest any such counsel." The decision as to whether such an oath had been violated could then be left both now and in the future to state and national boards of professional psychologists and legal experts to determine.

3. In several sections of the preliminary report (*Amer. Psychologist*, 1951, 6, 427-452, 626-661) the Committee has dealt at length with standards of conduct in teaching, research, writing, and publication. In spite of the close connection between these activities and the tasks of professional psychology, it would certainly be better for this Committee and all other committees of the APA to define their own business and then mind it. Questions relating to the marking of examinations, the posting of grades, the behavior of instructors in the classroom, the acknowledgment of indebtedness to colleagues, the preparation of lectures, absences from class without sufficient cause, etc., "frequently extend beyond matters of competence and become matters of ethical concern" (*Ibid.*, p. 657). They do indeed, but their therapy is no direct concern of the APA. "One member of the psychology department in a university arranged with students to supervise their investigation of problems in the special field of another staff member. He used the equipment and facilities normally controlled by the second professor without consulting him, even though that professor was making his normal use of the equipment and materials in his regular work. The impression left with students and faculty was that he considered himself more competent in this area than his colleague who was regularly responsible for this area" (*Ibid.*, p. 429 f.). Grievances of this kind, some of them trivial, others irrelevant, most of them matters of taste and expediency rather than of ethics, could be collected *ad nauseam et infinitum* from querulous and snappish college professors, but they are out of place in a general code of ethics designed for the guidance of clinical psychologists.

Unethical conduct in the domain of scientific research may occur more frequently than one likes to think, but in the long run the remedy lies within the methodology of science itself, not in the application of external restraints. The chain of science is stronger than its weakest link, for the mistakes of the individual scientist, whether deliberate or

accidental, will eventually be discovered and broadcast by some doubting Thomas. Truth will out. And so will professional sin, provided those who serve in the profession of psychology are carefully

selected and are dedicated to the use of tried and true methods in the promotion of human welfare.

CARROLL C. PRATT
Princeton University

A CODE OF ETHICS IS NEEDED

In the early years of the American Psychological Association, the problems of ethics were relatively simple. We were essentially an organization of college teachers. The only ethical problems which seemed to present themselves were those of plagiarism and of academic freedom. The first of these was usually argued back and forth in the journals, or ended in a resignation from the Association by the disgruntled party, while the handling of the second problem has gradually been taken over by such less specialized organizations as the American Association of University Professors.

In the last two or three decades, however, the picture has changed. Psychologists are professionally engaged in types of activity which bring them into new relationships with commercial employers, governmental departments of all sorts and levels, other professions such as education, medicine, and social work, and with the public generally in the role of private practitioners. Just as college teaching involved ethical questions of academic freedom, and research activities raised ethical problems of originality, priority of discovery or publication, improper use of the work or ideas of others, and the like, so now these new professional relationships each raise new ethical questions. If, as we believe, we are a profession, our colleagues in related fields look to us to develop standards of conduct befitting the status which we claim. They also look to us to take up the task of policing ourselves in accord with those standards.

It was to perform this task that the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct was created. This standing committee with rotating membership is charged not only with the investigation of cases of alleged unethical conduct, but also with the duty of prosecuting, when necessary, toward punitive action the exceptional recalcitrant member who persists even after persuasive treatment in "conduct which in anywise tends to injure the Association or to affect adversely its reputation or which is contrary to or destructive of

its object." Actually, the instances of improper or unethical conduct, while they often seem numerous to the members of your committee, are very few when our membership of some ten thousand is considered. But it is just these few who far too often drag the name and reputation of psychology in the mud. It is by these few that the remainder of us may be judged at the hands of the public and of our brother professions.

The committee, then, has before it the task of telling members what they may or, more often, may not do in their work, the work by which they earn their livelihood. It is inevitable under these conditions that differences of opinion arise as to what behavior is or is not consistent with a standard of ethical professional conduct. Who is to decide? Is this wholly the role of the standing committee? In such cases, then, the committee frequently has had to act as the legislative body, the prosecutors, the jury, and the judge. The amendments to our By-Laws adopted last year finally transferred the judicial functions to the Council in those rare instances involving the extreme penalty of expulsion, but still left in the committee an incongruous combination of legislative and judicial functions. So long as the committee has no code of ethics to act as its guide, it must both make the rules and enforce them.

One or two simple examples may illustrate the point. A few years ago, the ethics committee had before it for a hearing a psychologist (no longer a member of the Association) accused of advertising of a grossly unprofessional nature who pleaded that he did not know and had no means of learning that the material which he sent out could be considered unethical in nature. In other instances, the committee has had to take up with numerous individuals the matter of using their membership in the Association on letterheads or other printed material in such wise as to suggest that it was a certification of competence. A "Caution" regarding this practice has been published in this JOURNAL

and a copy is now sent to each new member. Nevertheless, several of our members have tried to justify their practices on the basis that the published "Caution" has no legal effect and is therefore not a canon of ethical conduct.

Perhaps these considerations may be put in another way. We, as psychologists, wish to see that our fellow psychologists act according to the "rules of the game" and appoint a committee to act as policemen. But what are the rules? Can a member be brought to the bar of justice for not playing according to the rules until the latter are codified, published, and made available to him? Or, does the enforcing body make a new rule to meet the needs of each case?

It is exactly to avoid these difficulties that a code of ethics is urgently needed. An experience of several years in the work of the ethics committee has shown again and again that its hands are tied and its attempts to police professional psychology are hampered by the lack of a published code by which the behavior of ourselves and our colleagues can be regulated and judged. Only when such a code is available will it be possible for psychology to hold up its head among professions and to say that it has standards which the national organization attempts to maintain.

GILBERT J. RICH, *Chairman*
Committee on Scientific and
Professional Ethics and Conduct

PSYCHOLOGY: SCIENCE AND/OR PROFESSION

Let me set before you three occupational models: a science, a business, and a profession. Each of these, in the purest case, shows a system of social interaction different from the others in crucial respects. There are other models, but these appear the most useful ones to those who are discussing the institutional aspect of the occupation of psychology.

Scientists, in the purest case, do not have clients. They discover, systematize, and communicate knowledge about some order of phenomena. They may be guided by a faith that society at large and in the long run will benefit from continued increase of knowledge about nature; but the various actions of the scientist, *qua* scientist, are undertaken because they add to knowledge, not because of any immediate benefit to any individual or group which may be considered his client. The test of the scientists' work lies in convincing communication of it to colleagues, communication so full and so precise that any of them can undertake to test the validity of claimed findings by following the same procedures. Scientists chafe under secrecy. If laymen do not receive full report of work done, it is simply because they are not sophisticated enough to understand the report. The great point in the scientist's code is full and honest reporting to his colleagues, and, with it, willingness to submit to full criticism. Since this is so, and since no client is involved, scientists ordinarily do not seek the protection of state license. Informal controls are sufficient.

The second model is that of a business. In purest form, business goes on among traders. Since the customer is also a trader, he is presumed to be as sophisticated about the object traded in as is the seller. The trading is a game. The principle of *caveat emptor* can apply without injury to anyone. As in all games, however, there are rules designed to allow the game to continue. There is no sense letting anyone in who has not the resources to make good his deals, nor the skill to keep the game going. Hence, stock exchanges have limited memberships. But the state and the public are not especially considered in making the rules of entrance to the game and the rules of play.

Not all business is of this pure form, for goods are eventually sold to an amateur, a consumer. The consumer may know what he likes, but he is not expected to be as good a judge of what he buys as is the man who sold it to him. He expects some little protection from unscrupulous sellers who would impose upon his ignorance. *Caveat emptor* tends to be limited, but not completely—witness the tongue-in-cheek "pitch" of advertising. The customer often, in moments of annoyance, initiates action to license sellers or to otherwise protect the customers from them. I introduce this model merely to high-light the third, that of a profession.

The people in a profession make their living by giving an esoteric service. Nowadays it is commonly said that the service is based upon a science or, as in the case of engineering and medicine, a

number of sciences. The essence of the matter appears, however, to be that the client is not in a position to judge for himself the quality of the service he receives. He comes to the professional because he has met a problem which he cannot himself handle. It may be a matter of life or death for himself or a loved one; of gaining or losing a family farm, or one's freedom and reputation; of having one's dream of a house turn into wonderful reality or a white elephant. He has some idea of the result he wants; little, of the means or even of the possibility of attaining it. Indeed, he may want an impossible result, and be bitterly resentful of the professional man's judgment that it is impossible. But the time comes when the physician cannot prolong a life. All patients are lost in the long run. Half of all cases contested at law are lost; there is a losing side. All professions fail in some measure to achieve what their clients want, or think they want, of them. Furthermore, members—even the best—of all professions make mistakes of judgment and of technique. The result of all this is that those in the profession do not want the principle of *caveat emptor* to apply. They do not want the client to make an individual judgment about the competence of practitioners or about the quality of work done for him. The interaction between professional and client is such that the professionals strive to keep all serious judgments of competence within the circle of recognized colleagues. A licensing system adds the support of the state to some mechanism established by the profession itself for this purpose. It is as if competence became an attribute of the profession as a whole, rather than of individuals as such. Thus the public is to be protected from its own incompetence and from its own impossible demands, in that "quacks"—who might exploit them—will not be allowed to practice. And the professional, for his part, is protected from his own mistakes and from the allegation that he may have made one, by the fiction that all licensed professionals are competent and ethical until found otherwise by their peers. The profession sets up institutions which make clients' judgments of secondary importance and colleagues' judgments paramount. These institutions will of necessity require some arrangements for secret discussion. For it is shocking and painful to clients to hear their problems discussed as objectively as must be in de-

ciding whether a professional did, in fact, show competence and whether he acted in accordance with the professional code. In such discussion the question of competence is discussed in complete separation from the outcome for the client. In protecting the reputation of the profession and the professional from unjust criticism, and in protecting the client from incompetent members of the profession, secrecy can scarcely be avoided. Secrecy and institutional sanctions thus arise in the profession as they do not in the pure science.

I have dwelt upon the professional conception because it is so highly valued in the western world, and especially in North America. The people, or some people, in many occupations have sought to have their work conform to the professional model and to be known by the professional name. Social workers, librarians, and many business occupations have tried it. The steps taken are much the same in the various instances. Courses of study are established, and, if possible, professional schools are founded and attached to universities. Prerequisites are required so that a person entering the occupation must decide to do so earlier. Eventually some body is set up to accredit schools and specify the curriculum. Devices are adopted to define more sharply who is and who is not properly in the occupation. Canons of proper practice, proper relations to clients (or employers), proper relations between colleagues, etc., are set up. Although the steps are essentially the same, the results vary greatly. The public may not accept the professional definitions and may continue to take their troubles to people not admitted to the professional group. Employers may simply hire people without consulting the professional group as to their membership or competence. Shrines and various kinds of irregular practitioners continue through the ages to treat the cases which doctors declare either incurable or imaginary. Sometimes the curriculum of the professional schools may be hardened before the techniques have really been tested in practice or in a laboratory. This happened in social work and in library schools. I do not know whether these things have happened or will do so in psychology. I only point out that they are things which do happen in the course of professionalizing occupations.

It is fairly evident that psychologists are torn between the professional and the scientific conceptions of their work. Only their enemies charge

them with pursuit of the business conception. Now medicine has been plagued by this conflict through many years. The marriage between clinic and laboratory is still an uneasy one. The wonder-working surgeon (they do work wonders) is still not quite at ease with the sceptical pathologist down in the laboratory. The practicing physician, meeting as best he can the emergencies of patients who refuse to get made-to-order troubles, feels inferior before his patient and learned brethren of the great research schools and foundations; he also resents their detached, leisurely criticism of his hasty blunders.

The medical solution, at least the one prevailing at present, is to instruct physicians in science but not to train them to be scientific investigators. Any physician who learns to do research in a science related to medicine, does so either in prolonged residencies in research hospitals or by taking advanced work in one or more sciences in a graduate school. There are people who believe that a great deal of the time spent in medical school is wasted, unless it be admitted that sheer initiation into the fraternity is a good way to have young men spend time. However that may be, the

medical profession has succeeded in enforcing a highly standardized curriculum upon all who would be called doctors of medicine, no matter what skills and knowledge an individual may use in his particular branch of work. Training in scientific research comes later, for the few who want it. I do not know whether psychology could institutionalize its conflict in such a way. But my point is not so much the particular solution as the fact itself that there is a continuing, deep conflict between the model of science and that of professional practice of medicine. In many individuals, it is an ambivalence.

I suspect that psychology's problem is of this order. I also think it likely that whatever solutions are arrived at will be compromises. They will be better compromises if no one has any illusions about settling the problem once and for all; if it is kept in mind that the conflict lies deep in many occupations, and that all solutions to it are tentative, based on limited time predictions about the effects of various actions.

EVERETT CHERRINGTON HUGHES
Department of Sociology
University of Chicago

EXCERPTS FROM LETTERS WRITTEN TO THE COMMITTEE

It is obviously impossible to present all, or even a small part, of the opinions that have been expressed in letters addressed to the Committee. As might be anticipated, most of the letters were enthusiastic about the proposed code and had nothing but favorable comments to make on the various sections. In general, these letters did not go into detail about the principles and incidents in the code, but were essentially expressions of agreement with the Committee and of congratulations on its work. As might probably be expected also, some of the letters were in the nature of apologies for not having had time to study the code or make comments on it. A large proportion of the letters were concerned with specific principles or incidents. Typically, these letters brought up points of disagreement, cited ambiguities and inconsistencies, or came out flatly in opposition to a proposed principle. And some of the letters dealt not so much with the content and intent of the proposed code as with phraseology and format. Although undoubtedly of great value to the Committee, these letters have not been selected for inclusion here. Rather, we have tried to find representative examples of various points of view concerning the code as a whole. Some of the excerpts discuss the

issues involved; others do no more than to raise questions which should probably be answered, or at least considered, before the code is adopted.—Ed.

In our departmental discussion the necessity of evaluating the proposed code in terms of the functions or goals desired was stressed. There was general agreement that some code would have value as a guide for personal decisions regarding professional activity and as a means of explicit examination of professional principles among psychologists. On the other hand, it was maintained that the principles of professional psychology are not at present sufficiently solidified to warrant the use of a code as a regulative device with power of enforcement. There was some question as to whether a special code for psychology is desirable since in the various roles of practitioner, scientist, and teacher, the psychologist is already subject to the value systems for all participants in such professional roles.

The proposed code does not seem to stress sufficiently the positive character of public responsi-

bility. The psychologist must continually inform and educate the public as to the nature of psychological services and approved professional practice. Legal regulation is not an end in itself, but one means of informing and protecting the public. The psychologist has the responsibility to attempt correction of conditions of misrepresentation and malpractice. The general educative obligation needs to be stressed. The public needs to be informed as to practices that *are* in accord with the declared and communicated principles of the profession. People will then be better able to detect and reject unprofessional activity.

The matter of divided allegiances and value conflicts seems to require further clarification. If the research psychologist has primary allegiance to science and the practicing psychologist to the client, what about the situation in which research is being carried on in the employment of a client? Are original research findings the property of science or the client? Related to this is the matter of personal rights in relation to research products. Do considerations of personal rights take precedence over the greater allegiance to science? Or should allegiance to the broader realm of science override considerations of less sovereign rights, personal or social? Further, can the psychologist be considered only as a professional person? What about conflicts between professional and personal obligations? Is it unethical to continue association with "unethical" practices when they provide the only available means of maintaining the welfare of the family, etc.? Finally, in situations of service involving risk to the client, should the obligation of decision regarding treatment lie solely with the client? Or does the psychologist as a representative of society have an obligation to influence this decision?

Concerning the section of the code on ethical standards in client relationships, the question was raised as to whether the functions and practices of clinical psychology are sufficiently well formulated to provide a basis for an ethical code. While the need for declaration of professional standards was recognized, a statement of ethical behaviors would seem to presume that such standards are already established. Thus, the principles set forth in the code seem to be too specific, while at the same time incidents are often not sufficiently clarified.

In our discussion of the sections on research, publication, and teaching the question of need for

a special code of ethics for the psychologist was raised, since the psychologist is already bound by the ethical values of the scientist and teacher. There was a suggestion that the scientific method is a value system in itself and not subservient to other ethical values.

Many of the opinions about the content of the proposed code were paradoxical in that it was considered at once too specific and not specific enough. On the one hand, there was the opinion that the code would state only general principles or values; on the other hand, the specific incidents used are often lacking in sufficient qualification of multiple issues involved.

DOROTHY C. ADKINS

University of North Carolina

If I can make any generalizations from the reactions I have had to certain of the principles, they might be three in number.

1. A code of ethics is successful only if it is the expression of the prevailing spirit and values of the overwhelming majority of the profession concerned; it cannot be treated as a set of rules or code of law, dependent for effectiveness upon rigid policing. Therefore, it seems to me that an ethical code should avoid extreme specificity which would inevitably mean that in numerous special situations various of its precise provisions might need to be violated, in the interests of abiding by its basic spirit. It would be extremely unfortunate if our intense anxiety to raise our own professional standards led us to try, by writing very specific ethical regulations, to compensate for the current lack of complete professional *esprit de corps*.

2. Any set of ethical standards established for psychology should not include tenets from the codes of other professions unless there is a definite need and justification for them. Just because the AMA, for example, regards a particular practice as ethical or unethical does not necessarily mean that we should similarly regard it.

3. The third general point that has occurred to me revolves around the danger that ethical rules or principles will encroach on an area which is really the province of technique or professional judgment. For example, principle 3.31.2, if interpreted rigorously, would seem to me to eliminate a great deal of the environmental manipulation which makes up a sizeable portion of short-term

therapy, especially that done in schools and institutions. Now certainly, there may be questions whether or not such therapy is effective, but it had not occurred to me to consider it unethical.

JOHN D. BLACK
*Counseling and Testing Center
Stanford University*

The APA was originated and has up to recent times been primarily maintained as a learned society parallel with such societies as the American Chemical Society, etc. Since the main activities of members of such societies center around teaching and research, the unwritten rules of conduct for teaching and research in general have been a "code of ethics" for such organizations, including the APA. Most members of our department felt that any attempt at codifying rules of conduct applicable to teaching and research was rather banal if not downright ridiculous. It was felt that the APA should continue as an interest group and allow the traditions of scholarship and science to serve as an unwritten code for those who are engaged in teaching and research.

More recently, the APA has added to its function that of being an assemblage of professional persons. In order to meet the needs of professional psychologists, the APA has to function somewhat similarly to the American Medical Association and must adopt rules of conduct to protect both its members and members of the wider community. It is in this area that we feel almost unanimously that an adoption of a code is appropriate.

CLARENCE W. BROWN
University of California

It was the general feeling of our group that the principles which could be so precisely stated as to admit of but one interpretation were among the most helpful. In this respect there was a great divergence among the principles. Some were so vague and general as to amount to little more than an affirmation of our stand against sin. There was some suspicion, on occasion, that the vagueness was chosen in order to conceal real conflicts in values. Where such is the case it would seem wise to air the conflict or omit the principle altogether.

L. E. COLE
Oberlin College

It was suggested in our departmental discussion that the principles might take on more meaning if they were accompanied by a number of judgments or rulings about specific ethical problems which had been made on the basis of each principle. You can see the parallel to a law or a constitutional prescription accompanied by a series of judicial rulings which make the intent of the principle more concrete. This is an extension of the idea of developing the principles out of ethical incidents. The ethical incidents, as we now use them, do not satisfy perhaps, because we have been careful not to say what was judged to be ethical behavior in each case.

STUART W. COOK
New York University

Our departmental discussion raised the following questions:

1. What do we mean by "ethical standards"? Should this term be defined? In what way does it differ from general moral standards of the culture?

2. Is it wise to have principles which are so obvious as to sound naive and detract from the value of the rest of the code? Should not the code deal only with real issues, i.e., situations where the answer is not clear?

3. Is the code too detailed for our present stage of professional development? Would it be better to have fewer and more general principles?

DONALD W. FISKE
University of Chicago

With respect to research, several things occur to me. In the first place, over the past three hundred years, scientists have developed a set of criteria for the evaluation of research. Thus, the use of controls, adequate sampling procedures, attention to negative cases, and so on, have already become established criteria. Now, it appears, we are being asked to add another criterion, a moralistic one, to the ones we already have. It would seem that the morals, in this case, do nothing more than repeat the scientific cautions we have used all along. So long as we merely re-name our present criteria, no harm is done and perhaps some forensic good will result. Thus, the individual who "selects cases" in such a way as to predetermine his results is not only an incompetent fool, but he is, now, an incompetent bastard. Formerly he was only a fool, but now he is steeped in sin as well.

Perhaps some good will result from this added emphasis. On the other hand, if we attempt to carry the moralistic criteria beyond the established scientific standards, the question at once arises, whose morals? Since we have no criteria for evaluating different moral systems, we enter upon a doubtful course. I recall one proposed system of ethics for clinical psychology that, in effect, made it sinful to do anything but nondirective counseling. Could we not arrive at a similar thing in experimental psychology? In any such conflict of moral principles, how shall we arrive at a decision between them? What shall we do then? We could take a vote, but this seems a very peculiar way for science to progress.

ARTHUR L. IRION
Tulane University

The code fails to distinguish among the various levels of conduct. Our study of the code reveals three distinct levels of conduct, which we would describe and label as follows:

1. Basic principles of conduct: What is the fundamental moral obligation, binding independently of any code, the opposite of which would be a violation of conscience and a moral fault? (Example: the confidentiality of a client-therapist relationship.)

2. Professional conduct: What is approved professional practice, the opposite of which would be unprofessional, but not a violation of conscience? (Example: direct solicitation of clients.)

3. Etiquette: What is a matter of courteous conduct, the opposite of which would be impolite, but neither a violation of conscience nor strictly unprofessional conduct. (Example: consulting a colleague before initiating work in his field.)

Putting all these three levels of conduct together without differentiation tends to reduce all three to the lowest common denominator. In other words, it tends to reduce the code of ethics to a code of etiquette.

A further necessity for differentiation among the provisions of the code will arise from the attempt to invoke sanctions. In this connection, we would designate the three levels distinguished above as follows:

1. Basic principles of conduct: Binding.
2. Professional conduct: Expected.
3. Etiquette: Recommended.

We would anticipate that the first level would be clearly enforceable and the third level clearly unenforceable. The intermediate level would probably be enforceable, at least in many of its provisions. However, an indiscriminate attempt to enforce the code as a whole might prejudice the entire attempt at sanctions.

JOSEPH G. KEEGAN, S.J.
Chairman, Special Committee
Fordham University

In reviewing the sections on research, writing, and publishing a special committee of psychologists in California made the following comments:

1. Is the code to serve as a set of regulations to be enforced with penalties? If so, many of the items would be impossible to obtain clear-cut evidence about. For example, principle 4.12-1: How could one determine whether a piece of research was conducted in a "manner inferior to that of which the individual psychologist is capable." If the items are intended to be admonitions and possibly used in conjunction with graduate training in psychology, they might serve a useful purpose even though they could not be officially enforced.

2. In the submission of the code to the members of the APA it should be made very clear what the members are being asked to approve and what the consequences of approval are.

3. Perhaps samples on the "ambiguity rating" of the items should be made, since there was wide divergence in the members of the committee as to the meaning and significance of several of the principles.

4. The question was raised of whether it is really possible to get at the most unethical behavior of members of a profession.

5. The committee was of the belief that in most instances the question of violation of a principle depended on the determination of intent on the part of the psychologist. This factor could obviously only be ascertained by careful study and investigation of the individual case. Are such procedures to be provided for in the code?

F. THEODORE PERKINS
Chairman, Special Committee
California State Psychological Association

The writing, after the period of debate is over, should be more terse and dogmatic in tone, especially in the statement of problems and principles.

As they stand, they strike me as being overly verbose and circumlocutious.

I also feel that the entire section (section 3) is too much on the timid and permissive side. Imperatives are needed in a code of ethics, even if the code is admirably and democratically derived and constructed. Otherwise, the code becomes nothing but a body of suggestions to people who may or may not accept it. A final code of ethics, even at this time, should be tough, realistic, and highly and specifically moral. Let the profession ascend to the code; the code should not descend to a low common ethical denominator. To revise a code in an upward direction after adoption and use for some years will be well-nigh impossible.

It should be remembered that this code will have a great effect educationally as well as in terms of limit setting. It is better to hog-tie, if necessary, some of the members of the profession now practicing, if at the same time the professional psychologists of the future be developed with a high aspirational and functional ethical sense of responsibility and behavior.

STANLEY S. SCHWARTZ
U. S. Army
Fort Lee, Va.

In our discussion of section 6 (teaching) the most general question raised was embodied in the

thought that much of this section was equally applicable to *all* teachers, and therefore, did not perhaps belong in a code for psychologists. It was suggested that such matters be left for a code for all teachers to be promulgated by the NEA, AAUP, or similar group, and that we confine our code to matters applying to psychology teachers, as such. However, in opposing this point of view, one member pointed out that, like it or not, many students and other members of the community regard the psychology teacher as someone special and expect special things from him, and therefore, our code should cover these eventualities.

It was also suggested that the introduction to the code should state clearly that the code is conceived by the adopting membership of the APA as (a) ideals to be striven towards or (b) binding absolutes, and there should be some statement concerning the relationship between full adherence in practice to the code and retention of APA membership. Also desirable would be a statement of the status at law, if any, of the code. One member wondered whether, in practice, some principles might come to be regarded as minor, others as major, so that their infringement would be equivalent, so to speak, to misdemeanors and felonies, respectively.

AUSTIN B. WOOD
Brooklyn College

NEW YORK ADOPTS A CODE OF ETHICS

New York State psychologists have had a long-standing interest in the problems of ethics in professional practice. One of the first efforts in the direction of a professional code was a statement entitled *Statement of Principles Concerning the Advertising of Aptitude Tests and Psychological Guidance*, which was adopted and published by the New York State Association for Applied Psychology in 1945, and made it possible to get newspapers and magazines to become more selective in their consideration of psychological advertising. With the activities of the APA Committee on Ethical Standards as a stimulus, NYSPA decided to go ahead with a formulation of a code of ethical standards. It was felt that this could be done more quickly in a smaller organization than in APA and that the experiences involved might serve as a useful pilot project for the profession as a whole.

When the idea was proposed to Dr. Nicholas Hobbs, he approved of it. Finally, there was the pressure of trying to do something about the many complaints about unprofessional conduct that came to the attention of the state organization; accumulated experience had demonstrated how little could be done in such cases if there were no code of ethics to consult.

At the annual meeting of the N. Y. State Psychological Association in February, 1950, the development of a code was officially approved and this task was made the main function of the Committee on Professional Ethics.⁴ The Committee decided to use all previous material that was relevant. The most valuable source available at that

⁴ Fred Brown, Marion F. Cowin, Albert Ellis, Leonard W. Ferguson (sec.), Raymond A. Katzell, Albert S. Thompson, Albert J. Harris (chairman).

time was Section 3 of the tentative code formulated by the Hobbs Committee. In addition, the publications of the National Vocational Guidance Association were consulted.

The first step involved circulation to each member of the committee a copy of the principles contained in the APA Committee's report: Section 3, Psychological Standards in Clinical and Consulting Relationships. After allowing time for individual study, the committee spent many hours considering these principles in detail. Wherever an objection was raised an attempt was made to alter wording so as to remove objection and allow unanimous agreement. Statements on which it was impossible to get unanimous agreement within the committee were temporarily discarded. It seemed desirable that, in this area of ethics where there are so many uncertainties, unanimity within a committee should be reached on any statement that was to govern the activities of the profession.

Following this meeting a revised version was proposed, circulated to the committee, and revised in minor ways on the basis of mailed comments. Then a third version was prepared, submitted to the committee for approval, then presented to the Board of Directors of NYSPA. The Board suggested further minor modifications and authorized the committee to go ahead with the presentation of this tentative code at the 1951 annual meeting.

The program for the annual meeting centered largely around discussion of the code. After a preliminary discussion of the code by the writer, the audience broke up into six section meetings, each chaired by a recognized specialist in a particular field.⁵ At each one of these group meetings a member of the Committee on Professional Ethics was present to answer questions. In the afternoon, the six discussion leaders each presented a report, listing specific suggestions made by those attending his meeting, and giving the consensus of the group. Fortunately, while several changes were recommended by the various groups, every group was in favor of the code as a whole. Following these reports, the question of action on the code was taken up during the Business Meeting. The

Committee on Professional Ethics recommended that a short period of time be allowed for members to send in additional suggestions, and that another version should then be prepared by the Committee and submitted to the Board of Directors. If approved by the Board of Directors, this version would then be submitted to the full membership for a mail ballot in which it would be possible to vote for or against individual sections of the code. After considerable discussion this plan was adopted. It was subsequently carried out, this process involving the preparation of two more revisions. Although there are some omissions, additions, and changes, the final version remains very close to the Hobbs Committee principles on which it is based. The code, entitled Ethical Standards in the Professional Practice of Psychology, was distributed to the membership in May, 1951, and was adopted by an almost unanimous vote.

The procedure which was followed in the formulation and adoption of this code represented as full a measure of democracy as the Committee found it possible to devise. To start with, the Hobbs report which provided the solid foundation for this code was already the project of a committee which had utilized the help of hundreds of psychologists. What the New York State committee attempted to do was to subject the principles which the Hobbs Committee had proposed to a searching scrutiny by psychologists representative of the great variety of special interests within the profession. As a result, some principles were dropped as being still too controversial, some were re-worded for clarity, some new ideas were introduced to take care of special problems such as advertising, and the wording was modified so as to extend it beyond clinical and consulting work and allow it to apply to the full range of professional practice.

This code has already achieved wide circulation; it has been sent to every psychologist on record in New York State and to many outside of the state who are known to be interested in ethical problems. It has already provided a means for advising puzzled psychologists on many issues regarding which they were not sure as to what the proper professional conduct should be. It has provided another kind of ammunition to help in the local efforts to achieve state licensing. Finally, it has awakened a real interest in professional ethics on the part of many psychologists who had formerly taken such problems for granted. It is hoped that our ex-

⁵ The discussion leaders were: Rollo May, Analytical Psychology; Stuart Cook, Academic Psychology; Fred Brown, Clinical Psychology; Louis Long, Counseling and Guidance; Steuart H. Britt, Industrial Psychology; Ethel L. Cornell, School Psychology.

perience may be helpful to the APA in carrying out its larger and more comprehensive professional ethics project.

ALBERT J. HARRIS
Queens College

Ethical Standards in the Professional Practice of Psychology

For Members of the New York State Psychological Association, Inc.

The New York State Psychological Association, Inc., recognizing that ethical standards are essential to a profession, subscribes to the following principles. These principles are intended as a guide in the professional practice of psychology and are not intended to apply specifically in psychological teaching or research. Intentional breach of these principles shall be considered conduct unbecoming a member of this Association.

THE PSYCHOLOGIST'S RESPONSIBILITY TO HIS CLIENT AND TO SOCIETY

Principle 1. The psychologist is primarily responsible to his client and ultimately to society; these basic loyalties must guide all his professional endeavors.

a. A client is defined as any person or organization to whom a psychologist renders professional service.

Principle 2. Individuals and agencies in psychological practice are obligated to define to those involved the nature and direction of their professional loyalties and responsibilities in any particular undertaking.

Principle 3. The psychologist, mindful of the significance of his work in the lives of other people, must strive at all times to maintain highest standards of excellence, valuing competence and integrity more than expedience or temporary success.

Principle 4. The psychologist should refuse to support invalid applications or unjustified conclusions in the use of psychological instruments or techniques.

Principle 5. It is unethical for a psychologist to offer service outside his area of training and experience or beyond his level of competence.

a. Pending the adoption of state licensing and certification by this organization, each member of this Association is obligated to restrict his unsupervised practice to those fields in which he has had adequate preparation.

b. Psychologists who shift areas of specialization are obligated first to obtain such training and experience in the new area as is necessary to ensure that the services they offer meet the same high standards expected of persons initially trained in the area.

c. A psychologist in professional practice must not use affiliations with other professional persons or with

institutions to imply a level of professional competence which exceeds that which he has actually achieved.

Principle 6. It is desirable that the professional psychologist be aware of inadequacies in his own personality which may bias his appraisals of others or distort his relationships with them. He should refrain from undertaking any activity in which he is aware that his personality limitations are likely to result in inferior professional service.

Principle 7. The maintenance of high standards of professional ethics is a responsibility which must be shared by all psychologists, in the interest of the public and of the profession as a whole. When a member of this Association becomes aware of practices likely to result in the offering of unethical professional work or in the lowering of standards for psychological services, he should bring this matter to the attention of the Committee on Professional Ethics of this Association.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE PSYCHOLOGIST TO HIS CLIENT

Principle 8. A cardinal obligation of the professional psychologist is to respect the integrity and fundamental convictions of, and to protect the welfare of, his client. Vigilant regard for this principle should characterize all of the work of the psychologist and pervade all his professional relationships.

Principle 9. Psychological services should not be imposed upon an individual, nor should a person be unduly urged to avail himself of such services.

a. A person is free to enter, not to enter, or to withdraw from a clinical relationship in the light of as complete a survey of the situation as the psychologist can make and the person can accept.

b. In situations where the responsibilities of the clinician are clearly defined and where competent professional persons would agree that a client or patient is incapable of making a choice in his own best interest, the principle of respecting the freedom of the individual to choose should be followed in working with the relative or guardian responsible for the incompetent client.

c. This principle is not intended to interfere with the rights of schools, institutions or agencies legally responsible for the education or welfare of individuals.

Principle 10. Clinical or consulting activities, such as administering diagnostic tests or engaging in counseling or psychotherapy, should be undertaken only in a professional and not a casual relationship.

Principle 11. The psychologist does not guarantee easy solutions or favorable outcomes as a result of his work.

a. Promises must not be made to induce a person into a professional relationship or to persuade him to

continue a professional relationship which he desires to terminate.

b. A considered and moderate description of probabilities should be given when assessing for a client the likely outcome of psychological work.

Principle 12. It is unethical to claim to have available secret techniques or procedures in psychological work.

Principle 13. Psychologists should not enter into a professional clinical relationship with persons so close that their welfare might be jeopardized by the dual relationship, such as members of the psychologist's own family or intimate friends.

a. In the case of associates, students, and acquaintances, the psychologist has the responsibility of assessing the difficulties which might ensue in establishing a clinical relationship and of refusing assistance if there is likelihood of harm to the client.

b. If a tentative decision is made to work with a person with whom the psychologist has other relationships, the nature of the situation and the possible difficulties should be carefully explained and the decision left to the person involved.

c. This principle does not bear upon supervisory relationships in the training of therapists.

Principle 14. The psychologist should guard professional confidences as a trust. He may reveal such confidences to appropriate public authorities if his most careful deliberation indicates that there is likelihood of danger to an individual or society. When possible the client should be apprised of the psychologist's intentions and an effort made to obtain the client's concurrence. In making decisions involving the principle here stated, the psychologist should be fully informed on the laws of the State of New York concerning privileged communications.

Principle 15. Information obtained in clinical or consulting relationships should be discussed only in professional consultation and with professional persons clearly concerned with the case.

a. This principle does not exclude the use of clinical materials for instructional purposes if adequate safeguards are provided.

b. The psychologist has a professional obligation to intervene in situations where a professional confidence is obviously being violated with possible harm to an individual.

c. It is undesirable generally, and in some circumstances unethical, to reveal the name of a client or to indicate that a particular individual is obtaining psychological assistance, without the permission of the person to do so, except in professional consultation.

Principle 16. When the psychologist's position is such that some departure is required from the normal expectation that clinical or consulting relationships are

confidential, it is normally advisable for the psychologist to make clear to the client's legal guardian the nature of his role.

PROCEDURES IN INTERVIEWING AND IN HANDLING CASE MATERIALS

Principle 17. A client who has accepted the services of a psychologist should be informed of those aspects of the clinical or consulting relationship, including the handling of materials derived therefrom, that might reasonably be considered important factors in the client's decision to enter or continue in the relationship. Candor in describing such circumstances and scrupulous adherence to understandings worked out with the client are essential.

Principle 18. The psychologist may give clinical information about a client only to those persons whom the client might reasonably be expected to consider a party to the psychologist's efforts to help him. The client's concurrence should be obtained before there is any communication exceeding these customary limits.

a. If the client is not competent to give this permission, the permission of parent, guardian, or other person responsible for the client should be obtained.

Principle 19. Psychological information, such as the results of tests or of a diagnostic appraisal, should be given to a client in a manner likely to be constructive in his efforts to solve his problems.

a. The giving of psychological information implies further responsibility on the part of the psychologist to assist the client to assimilate the information and put it to best possible use.

b. The psychologist may withhold information which in his judgment is likely to be detrimental to the welfare of his client.

c. The psychologist should exercise appropriate safeguards in the preparation and transmittal of reports when he is not assured that they will be used in a manner conforming to the intent of this principle.

Principle 20. Confidential professional communications should not be shown to a client without express permission of all professional persons involved.

Principle 21. The psychologist should give to other professional persons only such clinical information as they, by virtue of their professional training and individual competence, are able to understand and use in the best interest of the client.

Principle 22. When clinical information must be reported to a parent or a guardian or some other non-professional person responsible for or interested in the client, the psychologist should present it in language that facilitates assimilation, and with no attempt to exaggerate or minimize the implications of the information.

Principle 23. Clinical or consulting materials should be used in teaching and writing only when the identity of the persons involved is obscured beyond likelihood of recognition.

Principle 24. Care should be taken to ensure an appropriate setting for clinical work to protect both client and psychologist from actual or imputed harm, and the profession from censure.

FEEES IN PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Principle 25. Fees charged by an individual or agency in the practice of psychology should be established with careful regard for the welfare of all concerned, to ensure that the client is not unduly burdened by the cost of psychological assistance, that the psychologist or the agency involved is assured of adequate recompense, and that the profession is recognized as reasonable in financial matters and worthy of public support and confidence.

Principle 26. It is unethical to continue a professional relationship with a client, for personal gain or satisfaction, or from reluctance to recognize limitations of professional effectiveness, beyond the point where it is reasonably clear to the psychologist that the client is not benefiting from the relationship.

Principle 27. A psychologist should not accept a fee, or any other form of remuneration, for professional work with a person who is, as a client of his institution or agency, entitled to his services. This does not prohibit private practice with clients who, after being informed that they are eligible for such institutional or agency service, prefer private service.

a. The policies of a particular agency may make explicit provision for private work with its clients by members of its staff, thus providing a local exception to this principle. However, the wisdom of such a policy may be questioned in view of the ambiguous position in which it places the psychologist and the division of loyalties which might ensue.

b. When extra-agency assistance is required by a client, the psychologist has responsibility for endeavoring to see that an appropriate referral is made.

Principle 28. No commission or rebate or other form of remuneration may be given or received for referral of clients for professional services.

Principle 29. The psychologist in clinical practice must not use his relationships with clients to promote, for personal gain or the profit of an agency, commercial enterprises of any kind.

Principle 30. Reduction of fees for colleagues, for professional persons in fields closely related to psychology, and for members of the families of these groups, while permitted as a custom of mutual benefit to professional persons, must remain a matter of personal choice for each individual.

a. Long-term commitments, such as may be involved in counseling or psychotherapy, should not be expected to fall in the category of services rendered as professional courtesies.

INTERPROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIPS IN CLINICAL AND CONSULTING PRACTICE

Principle 31. In professional practice the psychologist must refer his client to an appropriate specialist when there is evidence of a difficulty with which the psychologist is not competent to deal.

a. This principle also applies with some modification when the psychologist, in other professional activities, such as research or teaching, becomes aware of the need of a person for professional attention. Here the psychologist should offer his assistance in obtaining referral.

b. When referral is contemplated, it is expected that the psychologist will discuss the matter with his client and obtain his concurrence before taking action. Preferably the client should be given the opportunity to select from several names, when a choice of professional persons is possible.

Principle 32. In cases involving referral, the responsibility of the psychologist for the welfare of the client continues until this responsibility is assumed by the professional person to whom the client is referred.

a. Full communication is to be expected between the psychologist and the professional person to whom the client is referred up to the point where the interest of the client will no longer be served by such communication.

Principle 33. In situations where referral is indicated and the client refuses referral, the psychologist must carefully weigh the possible harm to the client, and to himself and to his profession, that might ensue from continuing the relationship. If the client is in clear and imminent danger, the psychologist should insist on referral or refuse to continue the relationship. Due consideration should be given to the possibility of assisting the client through therapy to avail himself of the professional assistance needed.

Principle 34. A psychologist must not attempt to diagnose, prescribe for, treat or advise a client with reference to problems or complaints falling outside the recognized boundaries of psychological practice.

a. A psychologist offering professional services should familiarize himself with the laws of this State governing medical and legal practice, and scrupulously adhere to relevant provisions.

b. Best practice suggests that clients accepted for psychotherapy have had a physical examination to ensure that all aspects of the person's health are attended to, and that the problem dealt with by the psychologist is not beyond the limits of his competence.

Principle 35. A psychologist should not ordinarily accept for diagnosis or treatment or establish a consulting relationship with a person who is currently receiving psychological assistance from another professional worker except by agreement with the other professional worker, or after the client relationship with the other professional worker has been terminated.

a. This principle should be construed to operate primarily in the interest of the client. Allegiance to a professional group or concern for harmony in interprofessional relationships must clearly be subsidiary considerations. In some circumstances, the welfare of the client might require that the psychologist not refuse his services, even though another professional worker were involved.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES

Principle 36. The basic principle is that the psychologist, if he makes public announcement of his services, is obligated to describe his services to the public in a dignified and accurate manner, adhering to professional rather than to commercial standards.

Principle 37. Announcement cards should be limited to a simple statement of the name, highest relevant degree, address, telephone number, office hours and a brief explanation of the types of service rendered.

Principle 38. Directory listings should be limited to name, highest relevant degree, address and telephone number. Display advertising is not approved.

Principle 39. The mention of a relevant license, diploma, certificate, or statement of approval issued by a licensing board or professional organization recognized by the New York State Psychological Association is approved if expressly permitted by the issuing body.

MALPRACTICE OF CLINICAL AND CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

Principle 40. In the professional practice of psychology it is unethical to employ procedures which are likely to mislead a client, provide him with erroneous

information or faulty instruction, or subject him to possible harm as a result of inferior services.

a. This principle prohibits the offering of psychological services entirely by mail, the use of untrained personnel or of mechanical devices alone in the interpretation of test results, the unguarded dissemination of psychological testing materials, the use of group procedures when individual procedures are indicated, and other practices which fail to provide adequate safeguards for the client.

b. A psychologist giving advice in regard to special problems such as school placement or occupational choice is obligated to obtain current, relevant, and available information needed for sound counseling.

Principle 41. It is unethical to employ psychological techniques for entertainment, or other reasons not consonant with the best interests of a client or with the development of psychology as a science.

Principle 42. The psychologist in the practice of his profession should show regard for the social codes and moral expectations of the people of the community in which he works. He should recognize that violations of accepted moral standards on his part may involve his clients in damaging personal conflicts, and impugn his own name and the reputation of his profession.

Principle 43. It is unethical to engage in psychological diagnosis, treatment, or advisement, either directly or by implication, by means of public lectures or demonstrations, newspaper or magazine articles, radio or television programs, or similar media.

a. This principle should not be interpreted to discourage the presentation of psychological information to the public. The issue involved here is whether the act is likely to result in harm to a person, either directly, as in the case of public demonstrations, or indirectly, as in the case where psychological analyses and recommendations are so specifically presented as to create the likelihood of persons accepting the statements as designed for their individual guidance.

PRINCIPLES OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS⁶ CORNELL STUDIES IN SOCIAL GROWTH

The "Principles of Professional Ethics" were developed by the members of the staff of Cornell Studies in Social Growth, a long-range program of team research sponsored by the Department of Child Development and Family Relationships in the College of Home Economics at Cornell University.⁶ Miss Doris Kells, a clinical psychologist, had the major responsibility for

⁶ The principles are presented here as an example of a set of ethical standards for research workers, as contrasted with the codes that have been written more specifically for the professional, practicing psychologist.—Ed.

collating ideas and preparing drafts for staff discussion. The code represents an attempt to anticipate the ethical problems likely to arise in a community study (The Springdale Project) involving extensive interviewing and observation by specially trained graduate students working under faculty supervision. The present preliminary draft was drawn up before the most intensive phase of field operations had begun. Since that time, experience has underscored two important considerations.

1. A code of professional ethics defeats its purpose

if it is treated as a set of rules to be followed without question. It is effective only to the degree that it provokes genuine consideration—and even conflict—in the mind of the individual research worker, who has a value commitment not only to professional ethics but also to scientific investigation. These two sets of values are not always harmoniously matched, so that the researcher must weigh possible scientific gains against the risks involved. Thus it is manifestly impossible to conduct meaningful social research which does not in some degree invade the privacy and security of other human beings. Therefore the responsible scientific investigator cannot avoid the conflictful question of whether the invasion which he proposes to undertake is really justified by the potential gain in scientific knowledge.

2. This leads to a second and even more difficult dilemma, namely, that the social and psychological consequences of a particular research procedure often cannot be foreseen. Thus the only safe way to avoid violating principles of professional ethics is to refrain from doing social research altogether. It follows that the scientist, having tried earnestly to recognize and weigh the social consequences of his scientific activity, must always be ready to accept responsibility for and discontinue in midpassage procedures which prove more damaging than was originally anticipated and considered justifiable.

These two considerations, while they seem in their immediate consequences to be delimiting for scientific progress, may in the long run, through establishing more viable experimenter-subject relationships and sensitizing the investigator to hitherto unrecognized variables in the experimental situation, enrich rather than impoverish our scientific insights and experimental designs.—URIE BRONFENBRENNER

Preamble: A code of ethical procedures for research operations serves a twofold purpose. The first is to safeguard the integrity and welfare of those who serve as subjects for or who may be affected by the research study. The second is to give proper and necessary recognition in the research design to the variables introduced by the presence of the research worker in the field and the consequent awareness of community members that they are under study. We are operating then on a double premise: (1) The integrity and well-being of those studied are to be vouchsafed and respected in recognition of ethical human values. (2) The ethical values implicit in any research operation and their consequent procedural expressions must be made explicit and incorporated into the research design in the interests of sound scientific method, for otherwise they would represent unknown or uncontrolled variables. Only by taking into account the ethical import of research activities can the effects of the research upon those being studied be reckoned.

It will be noted that this document contains not only a section devoted to *General Principles and Ethics in the Field* but also a section on *Relationships among Research Workers (staff and trainees)*. Here again the reason is twofold: (1) To take cognizance of ethical human values in the intragroup research operations. (2) To help insure the carrying out of the research design since the ethical values governing intragroup research relationships will tend to be reflected in the research relationships established with the community and also in the handling of data (e.g., matters of confidentiality).

I. General Principles

A. Professional ethics in research activities are a matter of first priority.

1. Progress in learning to establish adequate field relations and to apply ethical principles has first priority in evaluating trainees' continuation in the program and staff members' operations in the field.

2. Responsibility for the welfare of persons under study is a continuing one for all research workers (trainees and staff).

B. The social scientist views people as individuals, not as subjects to be exploited. Specifically, he takes every precaution to preserve the security and privacy of the individuals and groups under study.

1. Each technique developed for field use is carefully considered in terms of its potential for provoking anxiety or invading privacy. The research intent is to reduce maximally such threats.

2. The research worker in the practice of his profession shows regard for the social codes and moral expectations of the persons with whom he works.

3. To the maximum degree possible, the free consent of persons * involved is secured at each stage of research activity.

a. In requesting verbal consent, persons are given as direct and explicit an account as possible of research objectives and purposes. In requesting consent the investigator does not attempt to evoke or capitalize on feelings of obligation or desires to please.

b. Consent can be secured only in relation to those experiences the consequences of which the person is in a position to appreciate; that is, consent to an unknown experience is not regarded as true consent.

4. The basic criterion for the investigator's interest in and inclusion of all data is that they have relevance to the problem under investigation.

a. Any material given to the investigator in his role as research worker is suitable for inclusion in research

* Throughout this document "persons" refers to all those who serve as research subjects; e.g., residents of the community under study, persons being tested, college students used in pre-field trials, etc.

records. Material offered or secured in any other context is not suitable for the records. Examples of material not suitable are: (1) material given to the investigator on the assumption that he is a personal friend or counsellor, rather than a research worker; (2) material given with the specific request that it be kept off-the-record (i.e., not recorded or communicated to anyone else).

5. All data from the field are regarded as confidential and every precaution is taken to insure the anonymity of individuals and groups save as such knowledge is essential to the work of persons specifically charged with responsibility for those data.

a. Information secured about persons involved in research is used primarily for research purposes. With proper regard for anonymity it may also be used for training and instructional purposes. Information that can be *identified with* community, specific groups, or individuals is used *only* for research purposes including training. With proper regard for anonymity it may also be used for other instruction (e.g., university classes).

b. Staff and trainees have access only to those files containing data essential to their work.

c. Permission to use field data for special research problems (e.g., theses, term reports, etc.) is granted by the staff as a whole. Permission is contingent upon the worker's ability to comply with the principles of professional ethics here outlined. In each instance the worker shall be instructed in his responsibility for maintaining the confidentiality of the material with which he works.

d. Trainees are evaluated and screened with regard to their ability to be entrusted with confidential data before identifiable group or individual material is used for training purposes and before trainees go into the field.

e. Professional colleagues shall not be told the name of the community(ies) under study save as it is essential for their own work, and regard for anonymity shall be maintained in conveying information regarding research procedures, data, hypotheses, etc.

f. Research workers have the responsibility for informing and indoctrinating family members in the professional ethics of field operations.

(1) Family discussion of individuals or groups under study is to be kept at a minimum.

(2) Family participation in community affairs is to be carefully planned to enhance rather than inhibit research relationships.

g. Personal information about research subjects, whether or not these subjects are identified by name, is not an appropriate topic for discussion at social affairs, informal gatherings, conversations with friends, etc. Discussion of the purpose of the study, the re-

search design, or any generalized findings do not, of course, come under this heading.

h. Field activities and data are not suitable topics for entertaining staff members, colleagues, visitors, students, etc. In like manner, persons or community are not exhibited as a curiosity to visitors, friends, etc.

II. *Ethics in the Field*

A. Role and responsibilities of field worker are clearly specified before the field worker goes into the field (campus, community, etc.) and changes in the conception of the job or of field worker's responsibilities are a matter for staff decision.

1. Whenever the field worker finds that circumstances require his adopting a role not covered by previous specifications, it is his responsibility to bring this to the attention of the appropriate supervisor or staff group for discussion and decision.

B. In this project, the research design limits the role of the research worker to that of scientific investigator. He is not an agent for change, a therapist, or specialist who can serve as a resource person. There are two reasons for this policy: (1) To reduce the number of complicating variables by designing the research procedures to have minimal effect on the lives of the community members. (2) To keep at a minimum any activities by staff members which may evoke feelings of conflict or anxiety.

C. It is the field worker's responsibility to keep his field role in the dimension of scientific investigator.

D. Every reasonable effort shall be made to convey to the persons under study, the nature and limits of the job of the field worker.

III. *Relationships Among Research Workers (Staff and Trainees)*

A. No research member is asked to undertake any activity which is not in harmony with his personal ethics and beliefs.

B. Any reflections upon the personality or actions of a field worker by a person involved in the research studies are considered to be a private matter. Wherever this is of vital concern to the research project, the matter should be discussed with a staff member. If the incident is to be made a part of the field report, it should be done only after discussion and agreement with the field worker concerned.

C. The responsibility of staff member to trainee is that of training him in research activities.[†] The training program in all its aspects is to be job-oriented.

[†] The functions of academic advisor, teacher of a subject-matter field, or personal counsellor, if they occur between staff member and trainee, are in the context of the staff member's role as member of the faculty or as personal acquaintance.

D. It is staff responsibility to keep clear explicitly (in training) and implicitly (in office relations, etc.) the nature of the job and responsibilities of the staff and the nature of the job and responsibilities of the trainee.

E. It is staff responsibility to keep well-structured in the minds of the trainees their status-in-training and their responsibilities in the research project.

1. It is staff responsibility to convey to the trainee at the beginning of and throughout his training, the opportunities, limits, and trial nature of his participation in the research program.

2. It is staff responsibility to conduct planned evaluation conferences with trainees sufficiently frequently to provide them with a realistic awareness of their progress and status-in-training.

F. The basis for evaluation-selection of trainees for assistantships or other jobs on the project is their performance on the job.

G. In event of evaluation-selection of trainee for assistantship or other job for which he has not had a previous trial, personal factors are considered in so far as they are pertinent to the job to be filled and have been evidenced in the trainee's performance during training.

1. Pertinent information known to a staff member by virtue of his activities and relationships outside of the research staff is not a proper subject for discussion with other staff members, but may properly influence the individual decision of that staff member in regard to the trainee's job qualifications.

H. It is staff responsibility to convey to the trainee, by precept and example, the professional ethics implicit and explicit in this document.

1. The area of professional ethics shall be included as an integral part of the training program.

EDUCATIONAL ISSUES IN PSYCHOLOGY

A REPORT OF THE FEBRUARY 1952 CONFERENCE OF THE APA EDUCATION AND TRAINING BOARD

WHAT role should psychology play in a liberal arts education? Should we train professional psychologists at less than the doctoral level? Should there be a core curriculum for all doctoral candidates in psychology? How can we best train psychologists for research in their different special fields? What kind of practicum training is it feasible for non-university agencies to provide? What is needed by way of postdoctoral education in psychology? How much and what kind of psychology is being taught to doctors, engineers, business students, and other professional groups—and by whom is it being taught? What are the educational implications of the rapid increase in the number of high schools which offer courses in psychology?

These and many similar questions were discussed at a recent conference of the APA Education and Training Board and Committees.¹ The conference, to which the psychologists of the University of Michigan were host, was attended by forty persons representing a great variety of educational interests and experience. The general purpose of the conference was to provide for discussion of problems on which committee members had been working throughout the year, and to make possible liaison and coordination between the different committees. It was expected, as proved to be the case, that the discussions would constitute a first step in the primary task undertaken by the E & T Board and Committees—namely, the delineation and description of the major educational issues currently facing psychology.

¹ Five committees are now working as part of the new Education and Training structure. These committees and their chairmen are as follows: Undergraduate Education, Claude E. Buxton; Subdoctoral Education, David C. McClelland; Doctoral Education, Bruce V. Moore; Practicum Training, Karl F. Heiser; Psychology in Other Professional Schools, Ruth S. Tolman. Two additional committees have been authorized but as yet have no members. They are the Committee on Postdoctoral Education and the Committee on the Teaching of Psychology in High Schools. The Chairman and the Executive Officer of the Board, Stuart W. Cook and Victor Raimy, prepared this report.

A comprehensive report dealing with these issues is in preparation and will be available for distribution later. In this preliminary statement only a few of the problems under consideration can be mentioned, and these only briefly. They are presented at this time because many of the issues will be topics for discussion at symposia and round tables at the September meetings of the APA. Those selected have been chosen in part with the objective of illustrating the range of issues to be dealt with. In making the selection equally important items have been omitted. These will be covered in the full report.

TRAINING FOR PROFESSIONAL WORK BELOW THE DOCTORAL LEVEL

Some of the most lively discussions at the conference centered around the training of technical and professional workers at subdoctoral levels. Opinions on this topic vary widely, as previous statements in this JOURNAL have indicated. Some psychologists feel there are many positions which would be most appropriately filled by persons with training below the doctoral level. Others hold that the disadvantages inherent in this practice far outweigh the advantages; they point out that the public tends to consider them as fully trained psychologists and expects them to take on responsibilities for which they are not prepared. Among those who favor training technical workers at subdoctoral levels there are many views as to the kinds of jobs for which training should be offered and the relative need, during training, for work in general psychology in contrast to specialized courses. There is disagreement, also, as to whether technical workers should be trained at the graduate or undergraduate level. Those who argue for the latter point out that the routine character of many of these positions, as well as the limited salaries and opportunities for advancement associated with them, would not in other fields be thought of as requiring graduate training.

After studying these points—and many others—the Committee on Subdoctoral Education presented

a tentative analysis of the issues as a basis for further discussion. They proposed first to categorize subdoctoral trainees in four occupational groups, as follows: (a) Those who administer and interpret psychological tests, to be called, as a group, psychological examiners. (b) Those who do guidance and counseling, largely in the educational, vocational, and industrial areas; to be called, perhaps, psychological counselors. (c) Those who specialize in such fields as remedial reading and speech correction or engage in specialized training programs in industry, and have as their common function the conducting of special-purpose educational programs, might be called psychological educators. (d) Those who work in a variety of technical capacities such as job analysis, test construction, and statistical treatment; as a group to be called, perhaps, psychological technologists.

Should these groupings prove to be meaningful, it would then become more feasible, in the Committee's view, to evaluate questions of educational policy. For example, it should become possible to determine the type of training most appropriate for each occupational group. This, in turn, should make possible a decision as to whether the training might be offered to undergraduates or whether it called for a graduate program. The Committee has offered proposals on these points; however, they are too lengthy for presentation here and must be reserved for the more detailed report.

Subsequent to the conference, the Committee arranged for discussion of these questions at each of the regional association conventions. Universities training psychologists for professional work at the subdoctoral level were each invited to send a departmental representative to participate in a group discussion of such training. Well-attended conferences took place at the Eastern, Midwestern, Rocky Mountain, and Western meetings and at the meeting of the Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology. There was general agreement among the participants that the exchange of opinion and of information about training practices had been of value and should be repeated on this and other topics in the future. The Committee obtained a variety of reactions to its proposals; these will be helpful to it in further work on the problem.

THE UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM

A second problem receiving attention at the conference was the nature of the undergraduate cur-

riculum in psychology. At present considerable variation exists. At some universities, the undergraduate curriculum includes numerous courses aimed at the development of professional skills; in others, such courses are infrequent or entirely absent. Some departments organize their course offerings primarily in terms of the special fields of psychology, such as abnormal, social, industrial, and educational; others place more stress on the components of a conceptual system and build courses around such topics as motivation, perception, learning, and personality. In some places, special courses are offered for students in other fields, e.g., nursing, business, and engineering. In others, such students are enrolled in the department's regular courses.

Many psychologists, of course, would hold that this is just as it should be, that psychology has not yet developed to a point where greater similarity in course offerings is either feasible or desirable. Some believe, furthermore, that variation will always characterize undergraduate psychology as long as it continues to fulfill its proper function of selecting from psychological science that which different student groups will find most beneficial in light of their special needs. In contrast, others argue that the time has come to make a rational selection of courses and provide for an integrated progression of study in terms of the most adequate conceptual system now available.

The Committee on Undergraduate Education presented the conference participants with the arguments for giving greater stress to this latter point of view. The Committee is considering whether in the long run a basic education in psychology might contribute more to the effectiveness of the person than the acquisition of particular skills, even though the latter may appear to have immediate use-value. This might be particularly true for the student preparing for graduate study in psychology but the Committee wishes also to examine the possibility that such a program might be most appropriate for the liberal arts student and for students in other professional curricula. A further discussion of this question has been scheduled for the APA meetings in September. The Committee hopes in the future to arrange for more frequent and extensive exchange of views among those interested in undergraduate instruction. One of the media which the Committee is considering for such exchange is a

journal devoted to the problems of college teaching in psychology.

A CORE CURRICULUM FOR DOCTORAL PROGRAMS

Since the publication of the 1947 report of the Committee on Training in Clinical Psychology, there has been rather wide interest in the question of a core curriculum for the doctoral program. As is well known, the CTCP advocated a thorough grounding in the content and methods of general psychology for the clinical doctorate. Many psychologists advocate a similar approach to doctoral training in other specialized areas. It is a common view, for example, that training for industrial psychologists should stress basic methods rather than applied courses.

However, there is strong opinion to the contrary. Some of those in opposition contend that there are certain basic skills such as statistics and research design which should be included in the education of all doctoral candidates but that for the time being at least there is no such thing as an appropriate common core of psychological subject matter. Still others feel that the effort to impart a common set of research skills to all psychologists is misguided. They argue that the person who teaches or consults or practices psychology in some other way will profit more from courses tailored to his real needs.

To some extent differences of opinion on this subject mirror major differences in assumptions about the future nature of professional psychology; to some extent, however, they result from a misunderstanding of opposing viewpoints. With the objective of minimizing the latter, the Committee on Doctoral Education has prepared an analysis of the issue and a proposal for dealing with it. A certain amount of common background is suggested for all doctoral candidates while allowing increasing opportunity for specialization as the student progresses through successive phases of his training. Details of the proposal will be presented in a symposium at the September meetings. Through this symposium and later discussions of a similar nature the Committee hopes to encourage analysis and improvement of the rapidly growing doctoral programs in specialized psychological fields. The Committee is exploring various possibilities for the exchange of opinion and practice among training departments. It wishes, of course, to avoid any pressures for premature and unnecessary standardization of the doctoral curriculum.

PRACTICUM TRAINING

Another facet of graduate training in which post-war developments have aroused renewed interest is that of practicum training. Considerable thought is being directed to the question of to whom and in what form such training should be given. In clinical psychology there appears to be general agreement that on-the-job training under adequate supervision must be provided before the new PhD is allowed to work independently. This usually takes the form of one or more supervised practicum courses followed by a predoctoral internship year. Occasional training institutions have developed similar provisions for supervised experience for their students in industrial and in social psychology. While the initial tendency in these areas has been to follow the procedures established in clinical psychology, no pattern of practices has as yet crystallized.

Should the requirement of supervised on-the-job experience be extended to all doctoral candidates? Or is this unnecessary for those who plan to teach and to follow research careers in laboratory settings? Those who advocate the extension tend to feel that the present performance of newly-graduated PhD's is often inadequate and that an experience requirement would provide a needed correction. Those who oppose it feel that the length of the doctoral training period is already adequate and the addition of an extra year would create an unnecessary and unwarranted burden. To the latter, the natural and expected occasion for acquiring job experience is during the first year or two on the actual job itself.

The Committees on Practicum Training and Doctoral Education, after a joint preliminary study of current or feasible practicum procedures, suggested to the conference several approaches to future consideration of the problem. They recognized by way of historical perspective that supervised experience has for some time been a more or less informal part of doctoral education in psychology. When departments were small and most psychologists were preparing for teaching careers, the vast majority of students served as laboratory and teaching assistants, graded tests and laboratory reports, taught quiz sections, and occasionally substituted for lecturers. Thus, the current concern with providing job experience as a part of training is not a new development. We are simply faced with the need

for better methods of arranging for such experience, a need which has developed in part out of the growth in size of our student bodies and in part out of the special requirements of the more recently developed doctoral programs.

The Committees suggested that in considering the desirability of practicum work for specific training programs the basic question to ask is whether lack of experience prior to graduation is likely to be detrimental to the calibre of the student's work or to the welfare of the client or agency he serves. The application of this criterion may result in the decision to incorporate practicum training in some fields and omit it in others. Where it is incorporated the form it takes will be decided most wisely if the role of the practicum work is defined only in the context of the objectives of the total curriculum. With such considerations as these in mind, further study will be made during the coming year of practicum programs in selected training areas.

TEACHING PSYCHOLOGY TO OTHER PROFESSIONS

In one of our potentially most important areas of concern, the teaching of psychology in other professional schools, we still know so little about current practices that we are unable to define the significant educational issues. At the moment we know little more than that each year thousands of students in twenty to thirty professional groups are taught some kind of psychology by some type of instructor.

During the past year, the Committee on Psychology in Other Professional Schools has initiated a series of studies intended to serve eventually as factual background for its analysis of this situation. Preliminary reports of these studies were presented to the conference. They revealed a number of startling facts.

For instance, there appear to be almost 200 psychologists in this country who are teaching or working in medical schools, while schools of social work appear to employ only a few psychologists as teachers. As yet, no psychologist has been found who is currently engaged in teaching psychology to students of law, but in apparently increasing numbers psychologists are teaching engineers, nurses, students of commerce and business administration, dietitians, and public health workers.

To date there appears to have been very little communication among psychologists teaching stu-

dents of other professions, and the Committee hopes, as part of its task, to establish channels whereby experiences, problems, and solutions can be exchanged more readily.

OTHER ISSUES UNDER CONSIDERATION

While we are unable in this statement to describe additional issues a partial list of those under consideration may be of interest:

- Training for research

- Training for theory construction

- Predoctoral MA training at institutions not granting the PhD

- The teaching of psychology in smaller liberal arts colleges

- The possible need for postdoctoral educational programs

- Policies regarding standards, standardization, evaluation, and accreditation

- Recruitment and selection of graduate students

EVALUATION OF CLINICAL TRAINING PROGRAMS AND PRACTICUM AGENCIES

In addition to considering educational issues such as those discussed above, the E & T Board and Committees dealt with a number of other matters at the Ann Arbor Conference. During the first part of the conference period the Committee on Doctoral Education completed its work on this year's evaluation of doctoral training programs in clinical psychology. Its actions were approved by the E & T Board and later concurred in by the APA Board of Directors, and the list of currently approved schools was published in the May, 1952 issue of the *American Psychologist*. Policies in regard to this program of evaluation remain unchanged from last year.

The Committee on Practicum Training reported on its study of the programs of 18 agencies which provide internships for students of clinical psychology. Visits by the committee members were aimed primarily at obtaining information on the problems and operations of the clinical internship. No formal evaluations will be published although letters of appraisal were sent to the directors of each training agency in the hope that the Committee's opinions would be helpful to the agencies. As a result of the visits and of related studies still in process, the Committee on Practicum Training expects to publish a further report on the problems of practicum training in clinical psychology.

A RECOMMENDATION REGARDING THE NEW STATEMENT ON ETHICAL STANDARDS

The following resolution of the E & T Board was approved by the APA Board of Directors at its March 1952 meeting.

It is recommended that training institutions consider the desirability of bringing the statement prepared by the Committee on Ethical Standards in Psychology, to the attention of all graduate students in psychology and of helping such students understand the various applications of the statement. (Various parts of the Committee's statement

have appeared in the following issues of the *American Psychologist*: 1950, 5, 620-626; 1951, 6, 57-64, 145-166, 428-452, 628-661.)

With the cooperation of the Committee on Ethical Standards in Psychology the E & T Board intends to make a continuing study of questions relating to education in professional ethics. Exchange of information regarding methods of education for ethical practices should be useful to those departments which wish to include such material in their graduate programs.

TECHNICAL RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS AND DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES: PRELIMINARY PROPOSAL¹

APA COMMITTEE ON TEST STANDARDS

DEVELOPMENT AND SCOPE OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS

PSYCHOLOGICAL and educational tests are used in arriving at decisions which may have great influence on the ultimate welfare of the persons tested. Test users therefore wish to apply high standards of professional judgment in selecting and interpreting tests, and test producers wish to produce tests which can be of the greatest possible service.

In particular, the test producer has the task of providing sufficient information about a test so that users will know what reliance can safely be placed on it. There is general agreement that test manuals and associated aids to test usage should be made complete, comprehensible, and unambiguous. Until this time, however, there has been no statement representing a consensus as to what information is most essential to the test consumer. In the absence of such a guide, it is inevitable that some tests appear with less adequate supporting

information than others of the same type, and that facts which some users regard as indispensable have not been reported because they seemed relatively unimportant to the test producer. The Council of Representatives of APA has asked this Committee to prepare a set of technical recommendations which may be published as an official statement of the profession. The task of the Committee has been to survey the possible types of information that test producers might make available, to weigh the importance of these, and to make recommendations regarding test preparation and publication.

Danger of Stifling Adaptation and Innovation

Improvement of psychological testing has long been a concern of the Association. In 1906, an APA committee, with Angell as chairman, was appointed to act as a general control committee on the subject of measurements. The function of that committee was quite different, however, from the present one, for that committee was concerned with the standardization of testing techniques, whereas the present committee has been concerned with standards of reporting information about tests.

In a developing field, it is necessary to make sure that standardizing efforts do not stifle growth. The words of the earlier committee are appropriate today:

The efforts of a standardizing committee are likely to be regarded with disfavor and apprehension in many quarters, on the ground that the time is not yet ripe for stereotyping either the test material or the procedure. It may be felt that what is called for, in the present immature condition of individual psychology, is rather the free invention and the appearance of as many variants as possible. Let very many tests be tried, each new investigator introducing his own modification; and then, the worthless will gradually be eliminated and the fittest will survive.

Issuing specifications for tests could discourage the development of new types of tests. In any case,

¹ This is a draft published at this time for critical examination by APA members and others concerned with tests. During the present year, the Committee will revise the recommendations and develop more specific standards applicable to tests of particular types. The revised recommendations will be submitted to the Council for adoption as an APA statement in September, 1953, according to present plan.

Criticisms and suggestions are needed, as early as possible. They will be most helpful if received before October 15, 1952. When draft material on a particular type of test (interest inventories, personality inventories, projective instruments and related clinical techniques, aptitude and ability tests) is ready, it will be sent to any member who requests that he be placed on the mailing list for that section. Inquiries, requests, and comments should be sent to the Chairman of the APA Committee on Test Standards, Lee J. Cronbach, 1007 South Wright Street, Champaign, Illinois. Other members of the Committee are E. S. Bordin, R. C. Challman, H. S. Conrad, Lloyd G. Humphreys, Paul E. Meehl, and Donald E. Super.

so many different sorts of tests are needed in present psychological practice that limiting the kind or the specifications would not be sound procedure. The 1906 committee, while taking cognizance of the importance of allowing trial of new ideas, was able to make a significant standardizing contribution. Standardization of test items and test administration has become a basic rule of psychological testing since their report was published. It may be noted that the wide variety of present tests is in itself proof that appropriate standardization need not interfere with innovation.

The aim of the present committee is to assist test producers to bring out a wide variety of tests that will be suitable for all the different purposes for which psychologists use tests, and to bring out those tests in the most helpful way possible.

Information Standards as a Guide to Producers and Users of Tests

The essential principle that sets the tone for this document is that a test manual should carry sufficient information that any qualified user can make sound judgments regarding the usefulness and interpretation of the test. This means that certain research is required prior to general release of a test, that the results must be reported or summarized in the manual, and the manual must help the reader to interpret these results.

A manual is to be judged not merely by its literal truthfulness, but by the impression it leaves with the reader. If the typical professional user is likely to obtain an untrue impression of the test from the manual, the manual is poorly written. Ideally, manuals would be tested in the field by comparing the typical reader's conclusions with the judgment of experts regarding the test. In the absence of such trials, our recommendations are intended to apply to the spirit and tone of the manual as well as its literal statements. It is considered that the manual is most useful if *all* the people to whom it is directed can follow both the language and the reasoning.

The setting of standards in any absolute form has been avoided, even though it would have been tempting to say, for instance, that a validity coefficient ought to reach .50 before a test of Type A is ready for use or that a test of Type B should always have a reliability of .90 before it is used for the measurement of individual subjects. There are different problems in different situations, de-

pending on whether clinical analysis or personnel selection is involved, whether preliminary or final decisions are being made, or whether decisions are a matter of great cost and importance. All these considerations convince the Committee that it is not appropriate to call for a particular level of validity and reliability, or to otherwise specify the nature of the test. It is appropriate to ask that the manual give information so that the user can decide whether the accuracy, relevance, or standardization of the test makes it worth consideration for his purposes. *These recommendations, then, suggest standards of test description and reporting without stating minimum statistical specifications.*

The aim of the present standards is partly to make the requirements as to information accompanying published tests explicit and conveniently available, and partly to recommend the presently reasonable degree of compromise between pressures of cost and time, on the one hand, and the ideal, on the other. The criteria by which a test may be judged have been discussed in many texts and theoretical papers. The relative importance of these criteria has, however, not been considered, and a test producer who reported all the information these diverse criteria suggest would be burdened by excessive costs. The manual or handbook produced would be too complex to be serviceable. Somewhat different standards should be stressed for different types of tests and not all types of information are equally crucial. In recognition of the fact that developing a test is expensive and that statistical analyses of minor importance are sometimes quite costly, the Committee has endeavored to decide what demands the consumer might reasonably make. Insofar as the Association, speaking for the people who use tests, can indicate the sort of information that would be most valuable, test authors and publishers can then direct their limited funds to gathering and reporting those data. Validation on practical or job criteria, for example, is essential before practical use of some tests can be made, but only a desirable addition in other fields, and irrelevant for still other tests. The standards therefore attempt to state what type of studies should be completed before a test is ready for release to the profession for operational use, setting a level which is reached by good present tests.

These statements have been submitted to criticism by specialists in test construction and use, in-

cluding test publishers. The Committee has consulted with committees from other organizations working on the same general problem, notably the National Council on Measurements Used in Education and the American Educational Research Association. Through successive revisions, the standards are being brought toward the form where they represent a true consensus.

Tests to Which the Standards Apply

The Committee, in defining the scope of its operations, has planned its recommendations to cover not only tests as narrowly defined, but also most published devices used in assessing psychological characteristics. The recommendations will apply to interest inventories, personality inventories, projective instruments and related clinical techniques, and tests of aptitude or ability. Achievement tests present special problems, and have been left, by agreement, to committees of other organizations.

General standards are presented that apply to all of the devices listed above. To reduce these generalizations to more explicit standards, the implications for particular types of tests will be stated in the next draft of the materials. Comments have been made to illustrate many of the points.²

Psychological tests can be arranged on a continuum as to degree of development. At the one extreme are those distributed for use in practical situations where the user is unlikely to validate the tests for himself. Such a user must assume that the test does measure what it is presumed to measure on the basis of its title and manual. For instance, if a clerical aptitude test is used in vocational guidance under the assumption that this will predict success in office jobs, there is very little possibility that the counselor could himself validate the test for the wide range of office jobs to which his clients might go.

At the other extreme of the continuum are tests in the very beginning stages of their development. At this point, perhaps the investigator is not sure his test is measuring any useful variable. Perhaps the process of interpreting is so undeveloped that the author restricts use of the test to situations

where he himself knows the persons who will use the test, can personally caution them as to its limitations, and is using the research from these trials as a way of improving the test. Between these tests, which are so to speak embryonic, and the tests which are released for practical application without local validation are tests released for somewhat restricted use. There are many tests which have been examined sufficiently to indicate that they will probably be useful tools for psychologists, but they are released with the expectation that the user will conduct validation studies against performance criteria, or will verify suggested clinical inferences by studying the subsequent behavior of persons in treatment. Examples are certain tests of spatial ability, and some of the more thoroughly developed projective techniques.

The Committee is concerned with the tests toward the operational end of the continuum. *The present standards apply to tests which are distributed for use as a basis for practical judgments rather than solely for research.* They apply with especial force to tests distributed to users who have only that information about the test which is provided in the manual and other accessories. Tests released for operational use should be prepared with the greatest care, and released only after their developer has gathered information which will permit the user to know what the test can be trusted for and what inferences have not been validated. The Committee has not prepared standards for tests which are privately distributed, and circulated only to especially trained users.

The general topics to be covered in the test standards are Interpretation, Validity, Reliability, Administration, and Scales and Norms. For each of these, general or keynote principles may be stated which apply to all tests. Different emphases are required, however, for each particular type of test.

Three Levels of Standards

Manuals can never give all the information that might be desirable, because of economic limitations. At the same time, restricting this statement to essential information might tend to discourage reporting of additional information. This we seek to avoid by proposing three levels of information. Standards are grouped in three levels: ESSENTIAL, VERY DESIRABLE, AND DESIRABLE. Each proposed requirement is judged in the light

² Tests mentioned in the comments have not been singled out as being particularly good or poor tests. The tests used for illustrative purposes are chosen because they are widely known, except where some less prominent test provides an unusually clear illustration of the point under discussion.

of its importance and the practicality of its attainment.

The ESSENTIAL standards are intended to be the consensus of present-day psychology as to what is normally required for operational use of a test. Any test presents some unique problems, and it is undesirable that standards should bind the producer of a novel test to an inappropriate procedure or form of reporting. The ESSENTIAL standards indicate what information will be genuinely needed in most instances, and when a test producer does not satisfy this need he should do so only as a considered judgment. In any single test, there will probably be very few ESSENTIAL standards which do not apply.

The category VERY DESIRABLE is used to draw attention to types of information which contribute greatly to the user's understanding of the test. They have not been listed as essential for such reasons as the following. Some types of information are difficult or costly to acquire and because of this cannot always be expected to accompany the test. At times a closely reasoned minority opinion regards a type of information as unimportant. Such information is still very desirable, since many users wish it; but unless it is easily provided, it is not classed as essential so long as its usefulness is debated.

The DESIRABLE standards refer to information which would be helpful, but less so than the ESSENTIAL and VERY DESIRABLE information. Test users welcome any information of this type the producer offers. In making such facts available the producer is performing an additional service, beyond the level that can reasonably be anticipated for most tests at this time.

The Audience for These Recommendations

The Committee has aimed to produce standards which will be useful to all those people who might be concerned with test production or with the purchase and interpretation of tests, and who have sufficient professional training to understand technical recommendations. This statement of standards cannot be a substitute for psychological training; we have addressed them to people who have had at least one substantial course in tests and measurements. The standards should contribute to the professional understanding of such test users.

The professional worker whose training is not recent will be interested in the thinking and sta-

tistical criteria which are presently being applied in test evaluation. A person who is concerned with tests in a field in which he has had limited training will be interested in knowing what he can reasonably demand of a test manual in that field. These recommendations should serve as reminders regarding crucial points to people purchasing tests. They may be useful to those who write reviews by pointing out what would be especially significant to examine. Test authors should refer to them in deciding what studies to perform on their tests and how to report them in their manuals. Test publishers will be able to use them in planning revision of their present tests. In considering proposed manuals, publishers can suggest to authors the types of information which need to be gathered in order to make the manual as serviceable as it should be.

Revision and Extension

For many reasons, it will be necessary to revise the standards periodically, and the Committee recommends that definite machinery for assuring such revision be provided. Despite the care with which the standards have been developed, experience will no doubt reveal that some of our judgments would benefit from further examination. The emergence of new tests will present problems not considered in the present work, and the improvement of statistical techniques and psychometric theory will yield better bases for test analysis. The efforts of test producers will lead to continued improvement in tests, and as this continues it will be possible to raise the standards so that the test user has ever better information about his tools.

Preparation of standards for test information by no means completes the job of improving tests and test use. There are many possibilities of improving testing practices through, for example, better education of those who use tests, or better administrative practices which will ensure that tests are used only by those who are competent to interpret them in a sophisticated manner. The Committee on Test Standards has regarded these problems as outside its mission. The Association should continually take steps to better these other aspects of psychological testing.

The Question of "Enforcement"

Once the recommendations are accepted, the Association will need to consider how they will be used and whether any formal enforcement machinery is

called for. The Council of Representatives, at the time that the Committee on Test Standards was set up, was unfavorable to a proposal that a "Bureau of Test Standards" be planned. The Committee was directed to prepare the standards without making supplementary plans for an enforcing body.

The standards here presented are intended to be used by individual psychologists and by test publishers without reference to any enforcement machinery. The principal function of these standards is to record the judgment of a professional group. The statement will then be used by individual members of the profession to improve their own work.

GENERAL STANDARDS

A. Interpretation

In interpreting tests, the user always is responsible for making inferences as to the meaning of scores. In making such judgments, he is dependent upon the available data about the test. It is necessary to make inferences from certain tests and for certain purposes which have not been completely substantiated by the published evidence. The vocational counselor cannot expect to have regression equations available for all of the predictions he must make from test scores. The clinician who uses projective techniques must often base his interpretations in part on general data and theory, in the absence of complete research on any one technique. The degree to which a test manual can be expected to prepare the user for accurate interpretation of the test varies with the type of test and the purpose for which it is used.

In general, manuals of ability and aptitude tests can be expected to present sufficient information for sound interpretation of test scores by properly trained users. At the other extreme, users of a projective instrument should not make interpretations without specific supervised training with that device and instruction in the clinical concepts and data which are part of its background. Here the manual cannot alone prepare the user to make interpretations of the specific instrument.

A second responsibility, which the interpreter is more likely to overlook, arises from the examinee's reactions to interpretations of his test scores. This responsibility does not arise in all cases. Many users of tests do not give direct information to the examinee, but rather make decisions about him;

e.g., regarding admission to school, hiring, etc. Many educational and clinical uses of tests do, however, require reporting the interpretations to the person tested. The responsibility of the test user to the examinee varies from that of the teacher who interprets the results of academic achievement tests to the great responsibility assumed by the clinician in making interpretations which bear upon the client's areas of conflict. To guard against damage to the client when the tester takes this responsibility, standards are especially needed regarding proposed "self-interpreting" tests, profile forms which are likely to be misinterpreted, and the like.

A 1. When a test is published for operational use, it should be accompanied by a manual which gives the information listed as essential in these standards. The manual should be called to the attention of all purchasers of the test. Where the information is too extensive to be fully reported in such a manual, the manual should summarize the essential information and indicate where further detail may be found. ESSENTIAL

A 1.1. If, in addition to the information in the manual, more complete information is provided in a separate publication, any such publication should meet the same standards of accuracy and interpretability as apply to the manual. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: Each package of Kuhlmann-Anderson tests contains a manual of information which gives summarized information on validity, scales and norms, etc. The full technical account of these investigations is provided in a separately sold handbook to which the manual refers. The Stanford-Binet solves this problem differently, including the essential information in a book which all users must have. The Strong Vocational Interest Blank has been the subject of unusually thorough research which is reported in a technical book. Strong presents a brief version of the essential conclusions in a manual sold with the Blanks. In contrast, projective tests have frequently been marketed with little or no accompanying official information. It would be better if all such materials were accompanied by the producer's statement regarding the character of the materials and the extent to which they have been validated, together with references to more comprehensive reports on the tool.]

A 1.2. When new information emerges, from investigations by the test author or others, which

indicates that some facts and recommendations made in the manual are substantially incorrect, a revised manual should be issued. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: A revised manual for Army Beta, which arose out of World War I, was issued in 1946. In contrast, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory has been severely criticized, but no revision has been made of the manual subsequently.]

A 2. *The test manual should state explicitly the purposes and applications for which the test is recommended.* **ESSENTIAL**

A 2.1. If a test is intended for research use only, and is not distributed for operational use, that fact should be prominently stated in the accompanying materials. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: Thurstone plans to release factorial tests for the use of investigators conducting research on abilities. These tests are not to be used for guidance or selection until more is known about them. In such circumstances, it would be appropriate to print "distributed for research use only" on the test package or cover of the booklet of directions.]

A 3. *The test manual should indicate clearly the professional qualifications required to administer and interpret the test properly.* **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: The APA Code of Standards for Test Distribution discusses the problem of qualifications of test users. Those standards outline three categories for classifying tests, as follows:

Tests and diagnostic aids should be released only to persons who can demonstrate that they have the knowledge and skill necessary for their effective use and interpretation.

Level A. Tests or aids which can adequately be administered, scored, and interpreted with the aid of the manual and a general orientation to the kind of organization in which one is working.

Level B. Tests or aids which require some technical knowledge of test construction and use, and of supporting psychological and educational subjects such as statistics, individual differences, and psychology of adjustment, personnel psychology, and guidance.

Level C. Tests and aids which require substantial understanding of testing and supporting psychological subjects, together with supervised experience in the use of these devices.³

A 3.1. The manual should state the classification of the test in terms of the level of training required. Where a test is recommended for a variety of purposes or types of inference, the manual should indicate the amount of training required for each use. **ESSENTIAL**

A 3.11. The manual should state the type and extent of any special training required for the test, possibly in terms of specified courses, or number of tests given and scored under supervision. **ESSENTIAL**

A 3.2. The manual should not imply that the test is "self-interpreting" or that it may be interpreted, except under professional supervision, by a person lacking proper training. **ESSENTIAL**

A 3.3. The manual should draw attention to references dealing with the test in question with which the user should become familiar before attempting to interpret the test. The statement should avoid the implication that this constitutes the only training needed, if other training is required. **VERY DESIRABLE**

A 4. *The test and accompanying record forms should be so designed that professional and lay persons who see the results will be helped to make correct interpretations of the scores presented.* **ESSENTIAL**

A 4.1. Where a certain misinterpretation of a given test is known to be frequently made, or can reasonably be anticipated in the case of a new test, the manual should draw attention to this error and warn against it. **ESSENTIAL**

A 4.11. Such warning should also be incorporated into any test report form to be placed in the hands of the person tested. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: The Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory cautions the user that this is not a measure of ability or aptitude.]

A 4.2. Names given to tests, and to scores within tests, should be chosen to minimize the risk of misinterpretation by test purchasers. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: The House-Tree-Person Test, The Blacky Test, and the Draw-A-Person Test are examples of test names based on the content or process involved in the test which carry no unwarranted suggestions as to characteristics measured. The name "Culture-Free Intelligence Test" is likely to suggest interpretations going beyond the demonstrable meaning of test scores.]

A 4.3. In presenting the technical research on a test, the use of "value" terms and of general statements unsupported by data should be avoided. **ESSENTIAL**

A 4.4. When the term "significant" is employed, the manual should make clear whether statistical or practical significance is meant, and the practical

³ *American Psychologist*, November, 1950.

significance of "statistically significant" differences should be discussed. **ESSENTIAL**

A 4.5. The manual should clearly differentiate between an interpretation justified regarding a group taken as a whole, and the application of such an interpretation to each individual within the group. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: For example, if the standard error of measurement is five points, this statement should not be presented so as to imply that the obtained score for any one individual is within five points of his true score. This error might, in single cases, be very much larger.]

A 5. *When a test is issued in revised form, the nature and extent of any revision, and the overlap between the revised and the old test should be explicitly stated.* **ESSENTIAL**

A 6. *The manual should draw the user's attention to data other than the test scores which need to be taken into account in interpreting the test.* **VERY DESIRABLE**

A 6.1. The manual should report correlations of this test with other measures likely to be used in making decisions about the person tested. **DESIRABLE**

A 6.2. When case studies are used as illustrations for the interpretations of test scores, the examples presented should include some relatively complicated cases whose interpretation is not clear-cut. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: The manual for the Differential Aptitude Tests presents a small set of profiles and gives an interpretation and a too brief case summary for each one. The more extensive case reports in *Counseling from Profiles*, a supplementary booklet on the test, avoid oversimplification and emphasize the possible influence of non-test data on test interpretation.]

B. Validity

B 1. *The manual should report the validity of each type of inference for which a test is recommended. If validity of some recommendation has not been established, that fact should be made clear.* **ESSENTIAL**

B 1.1. The manual should indicate which, if any, of the interpretations usually attempted for tests such as the one under discussion have not been substantiated. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: An example of a highly desirable

warning to readers is this statement from the manual of the Purdue Pegboard.

Generalizations concerning the validity of any test should be made with great caution, and this is particularly true of dexterity tests. As Seashore has reported, motor skills are quite specific and ordinarily not highly correlated with each other. This situation perhaps accounts for the fact that a given dexterity test may have a rather satisfactory validity for certain manipulative jobs and yet be unsuitable for other manipulative jobs which might seem to be very similar. It is therefore highly desirable to conduct a study of the validity of the several Pegboard tests among employees on specific jobs for which the use of the test is contemplated, rather than attempt to generalize from available validity studies.]

B 1.2. As competent studies of the validity of the test are reported by investigators independent of the test author, such evidence should be taken into account fairly in the discussion of validity in subsequent editions of the manual or in supplementary reports. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: For example, a fair and comprehensive summary is provided in the 1951 manual for the Kuder Preference Record.]

B 1.21. Where the evidence on validity is too extensive to be placed in the manual, a supplementary report should provide a critical review of the entire literature on the test. **DESIRABLE**

B 2. *When validity is reported, the manual should indicate clearly what type of validity is referred to. The unqualified term "validity" should be avoided unless its meaning is clear from the context.* **ESSENTIAL**

Validity is not an absolute characteristic of a test. There are several types of validity depending on the type of inference for which the test is to be used. In the following standards four categories of validities have been distinguished; namely, predictive validity, status validity, content validity, and congruent validity.

Predictive validity denotes correlation between the test and subsequent criterion measures. This type of validity is necessary in vocational interest tests designed to predict later occupational satisfaction, in aptitude tests used in industrial selection, or in projective instruments used to predict reaction to therapy.

Status validity denotes correlation between the test and concurrent external criteria. The difference between this type of validity and predictive validity is solely the time factor. Predictive validity has a future reference, while status validity

refers to the individual as of the time of testing. It is important to make this distinction because predictive validity does not insure that the test will also have status validity, or vice versa. A test which reflects intellectual impairment due to psychosis (status validity) will not necessarily provide a basis for predicting future psychoses in non-patients. Similarly, an interest test which discriminates between accountants and engineers (status validity) will not necessarily predict which students will become satisfied engineers or accountants.

Content validity refers to the case in which the specific type of behavior called for in the test is the goal of training or some similar activity. Ordinarily, the test will sample from a universe of possible behaviors. An academic achievement test is most often examined for content validity.

Congruent validity is established when the investigator demonstrates what psychological attribute a test measures by showing correspondence between scores on the test, and other indicators of the state or attribute. This type of validation is used for tests intended to measure a construct arising from some theory; the validation consists of evidence that the scores vary from person to person or occasion to occasion as the theory would imply. For example, should a test aim to measure levels of psychosexual fixation, no criterion is available which is a trustworthy measure of this quality. The investigation of the test can only show that the scores perform as expected in a measure of this attribute. A much simpler type of validation which also falls under the heading of congruent validity is the demonstration that a particular test of number ability has substantial correlation with other tests accepted as measuring numerical factors. Essentially, in congruent validity the meaning assigned to test scores is substantiated by demonstrating that scores are consistent with deductions from the theory from which the meaning derived. This validation process is much the same as that involved in evaluating a theory itself.

Often congruent validity is established by considering together many different sorts of incomplete evidence. Congruent validity may rely on correlation with other tests, on observations of persons having known scores, and on evidence that the test discriminates between groups (as in status validity). Even fairly low correlations or imperfect discrimi-

nation may lend support to the interpretations made. Of most importance, however, is a direct experimental attack. Controlled investigations can test the deduction from theory. If it is supposed that form perception on the Rorschach has a predictable relationship to behavior under stress, an experimental situation can test this expectation. The various "nature-nurture" investigations studying the extent to which mental test scores can be attributed to genetic factors can be considered as studies of the congruent validity of those tests.

These distinctions may be clarified if we note that in predictive and status validity, the criterion behavior is of direct concern to the tester, and the test is of interest only as an indirect estimate of it. In tests where content validity is examined, the test behavior is the thing with which the tester is chiefly concerned. Proficiency, as shown on a work-sample performance test, can be an end in itself. Congruent validity is ordinarily studied when we have several indirect measures of some quality or trait, and wish to show that the test measures this quality. None of the test measures may be a good criterion measure of the quality which concerns the tester, yet all the measures support each other. Here the trait or quality is of central importance, rather than the test behavior per se or the criterion used.

[Comment: In accord with B 2, the manual should make clear what type of inference the validation study supports. No manual should report that "this test is valid." In the past, evidence that is not appropriately termed evidence of validity has been presented in the manual under that heading. For example, the "validity" report of the Thurstone Interest Schedule deals solely with item-test inter-correlations.]

In the following section, the recommendations for reporting statistical studies of validity apply to predictive validity, status validity, and congruent validity. Few standards have been stated for content validity, as this concept applies with greatest force to achievement tests.

B 3. When validity is verified by statistical analysis, the analysis should be reported in a form which indicates the accuracy of inferences regarding individuals. ESSENTIAL

B 3.1. Statistical procedures which are well known and readily interpreted should be used in reporting validity whenever they are appropriate to the data under examination. Any uncommon sta-

tistical techniques should be explained. **ESSENTIAL**

B 3.11. Reports of statistical validation studies should ordinarily be expressed by (a) correlation coefficients of familiar types; (b) description of the efficiency with which the test separates groups, indicating amount of misclassification or overlapping; or (c) expectancy tables indicating the probability of attaining some particular level on the criterion. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: Reports of differences between means of groups, or critical ratios, are by themselves inadequate information regarding predictive validity of a test even though this evidence may be important in the early stages of development of a test. If a sample is large, high critical ratios may be found even when classification of any individual is very inaccurate. In general, since manuals are directed to readers who have limited statistical knowledge, every effort should be made to communicate validity information clearly.]

B 3.2. An over-all validity coefficient should be supplemented with evidence as to the validity of the test at different points along the range, unless the author reports that the validity is essentially constant throughout. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: This might be reported by giving the standard error of estimate at various test score levels, or by indicating the proportion of hits, misses, and false positives at various cutting scores. The Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test reports the number of failures in primary reading expected at each level of test score.]

B 4. *The author should base validation studies on samples comparable, in terms of selection of cases and conditions of testing, to the groups to whom the manual recommends that the test be applied.* **ESSENTIAL**

B 4.1. The validation sample should be described sufficiently for the user to know whether his case is like those on whom the validation was based. The user should be warned against assuming validity when the test is applied to persons unlike the validation sample. **ESSENTIAL**

B 4.2. Appropriate measures of central tendency and variability of test scores for the validation sample should be reported. **ESSENTIAL**

B 4.3. The number of cases in the validation sample should be reported. The group should be described in terms of those variables known to be related to the quality tested: these will normally

include age, sex, socioeconomic status, and level of education. Any selective factor which restricts or enlarges the variability of the sample should be indicated. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: In tests validated on patients, the diagnoses of the patients would usually be important to report. In tests for industrial use or vocational guidance, occupation and experience should be described.]

B 4.4. Coefficients or other measures of discrimination should not be based on cases having extreme scores on the criterion, or other such unusual groups, unless the test is ordinarily to be used to distinguish between such groups. If the coefficient is based on unusual groups, it should be corrected to the value expected in typical groups of subjects. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: A biserial correlation between a scholastic aptitude test and college success, where the persons distinguished are dropouts and honor students, will be much higher than a coefficient based on all entering students. The test will normally be used on the latter group, and the validity coefficient should emphasize the power of the test in that group.]

B 5. *All measures of criteria should be described accurately and in detail. The manual should discuss the adequacy of the criterion. It should draw attention to significant aspects of performance which the criterion measure does not reflect and to the irrelevant factors which it may reflect.* **ESSENTIAL**

B 5.1. The reliability of the criterion should be reported if it can be determined. If such evidence is not available, the author should discuss the probable reliability as judged from indirect evidence. **VERY DESIRABLE**

B 5.2. If validity coefficients are corrected for unreliability of the criterion, both corrected and uncorrected coefficients should be reported and interpreted. **ESSENTIAL**

B 5.3. Test manuals should not report validity coefficients corrected for unreliability of the test. If for special purposes such coefficients are reported, the uncorrected coefficients must be reported also and the proper interpretation of the corrected coefficients must be discussed. **ESSENTIAL**

B 5.4. The date when validation data were gathered should be reported. **ESSENTIAL**

B 5.5. The criterion score of a person should be experimentally independent of his test score. The manual should describe precautions taken to avoid contamination of the criterion. **ESSENTIAL**

Predictive Validity

B 6. *When items are selected or a scoring key is established empirically on the basis of evidence gathered on a particular sample, the manual should not report validities computed on this sample, or on a group which includes any of this sample. The reported validity coefficients should be based on a cross-validation sample. ESSENTIAL*

B 6.1. If the manual recommends certain regression weights, validity of the composite should be determined on a cross-validation sample. **VERY DESIRABLE**

B 7. *If the criterion, the conditions of work, the type of person likely to be tested, or the meaning of the test items is suspected of changing materially with the passage of time, the validity of the test should be rechecked periodically and the results reported in subsequent editions of the manual. VERY DESIRABLE*

Status Validity

B 8. *Reports of status validity should be so described that the reader will not regard them as direct evidence of predictive validity. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory is validated at present by correlating attitude scores with teaching performance at the same time. This is reported under the general heading of "validity," and use of the test for selecting teachers or teacher-training candidates is recommended. The manual should point out that there have so far been no studies measuring entering students and observing them later on the job.]

Congruent Validity

B 9. *The manual should report information to assist the user in determining what psychological attributes account for variance in test scores. DESIRABLE*

B 9.1. Insofar as practicable, the manual should report correlations between the test and other tests which are better understood. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: It is desirable to know the correlation of an "art aptitude" test for college freshmen with measures of general or verbal ability, and also with measures of skill in drawing. The interpre-

tation of test scores would differ, depending on whether these correlations are high or low. On the other hand, it is clearly impractical to ask that the test author correlate his test with all prominent tests.]

B 9.2. The manual should report the correlations of the test with other previously published and generally accepted measures of the same attributes. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: When a test is advanced as a measure of "general intelligence," its correlation with one or more of the well-accepted measures should be reported. Similarly if a test is advanced as a measure of "mechanical comprehension" or "introversion," its correlations with other measures of these traits should be reported. The user can infer, from the size of such correlations, whether generalizations established on the older test can be expected to hold for the new one. Practical limitations will prevent most authors from correlating their test with all competing tests. Example of good practice: Wechsler reported the correlation of Wechsler-Bellevue scores with the Stanford-Binet.]

B 9.3. If a test has been included in factorial studies which indicate the proportion of the test variance attributable to widely known reference factors, such information should be presented in the manual. **DESIRABLE**

B 10. *When a test consists of separately scored parts or sections, the correlation between the parts or sections should be reported. ESSENTIAL*

B 10.1. If the manual reports the correlation between a subtest and a total score, it should point out that part of this correlation is an artifact. **ESSENTIAL**

B 11. *Where congruent validity is established by inference from scattered experiments, correlations with other tests, and other indirect evidence, the manual should indicate clearly what degree of confidence can be placed in the interpretation suggested for scores. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: Even in the case of well-known and carefully studied tests, establishing "what the test measures" is difficult. An intelligence test manual could at most point to the evidence establishing a presumption that differences are attributable in part to innate abilities. A test purporting to measure an attitude or a personality trait will generally be validated only incompletely at best, and the manual should not encourage excessive confidence in the author's interpretation.]

Content Validity

B 12. *Claims or recommendations based on content validity should be carefully distinguished from inferences established by statistical studies. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: While content validity may establish that a test taps a particular area, it does not establish that the test is useful for some practical purpose, such as predicting grades or occupational interests. The "content validity" of the Lee-Thorpe Occupational Interest Inventory rests upon the method of sampling items from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. This alone does not establish that the test validly predicts job interests.]

B 13. *If content validity is important for a particular test, the manual should indicate clearly what universe of content is represented. ESSENTIAL*

B 13.1. The universe of content should be defined in terms of the sources from which items were drawn, or the content criteria used to include and exclude items. ESSENTIAL

B 13.2. The method of sampling items within the universe should be described. ESSENTIAL

[Comment: R. H. Seashore prepared a vocabulary test, defining his universe as all words in a certain unabridged dictionary, and sampled according to a definite plan. Reports on the Wechsler Memory scale do not make clear what universe of content is represented nor how items were selected.]

C. Reliability

Reliability is a generic term referring to many types of evidence. The several types of reliability coefficient do not answer the same questions and should be carefully distinguished. We shall refer to a measure based on internal analysis of data obtained on a single trial of a test as a *coefficient of internal consistency*. The most prominent of these are the analysis of variance method (Kuder-Richardson, Hoyt) and the split-half method. A coefficient based on scores from two forms given at essentially the same time we shall refer to as a *coefficient of equivalence*. (A split-half coefficient based on carefully equated parts of a test is in effect a coefficient of equivalence.) The correlation between test and retest, with an intervening period of time, gives a *coefficient of stability*. Such a coefficient is also obtained when two forms of the test are given with an intervening period of time.

C 1. *The test manual should report such evidence of reliability as would permit the reader to judge whether scores are sufficiently dependable for the recommended uses of the test. ESSENTIAL*

C 1.1. Evidence is required for every score, subscore, or combination of scores whose interpretation is suggested. ESSENTIAL

C 1.2. If differences between scores are to be interpreted or if the plotting of a profile is suggested, the manual should report the reliability of the difference between any two scores for the same person. ESSENTIAL

C 1.21. If reliability of differences between scores is low, the manual should caution the user against plotting profiles or interpreting differences in scores except as a source of preliminary information to be verified. ESSENTIAL

[Comment: The California Test of Mental Maturity reports reliability coefficients for the main scores and for scores on the major sections. Each section is further divided, the Spatial subtest, for example, including a group of items on Manipulation of Areas. By listing scores for such subsections on the profile sheet, the authors indirectly encourage interpretation of them. While supplementary material on the test mentions the low reliability of the subsections, the manual does not. It would be sounder practice to plot only those scores whose reliability is determined and reported in the manual. In some suggestions for interpretation, this test manual implies that certain meanings can be given to the difference between Language and Non-Language scores. The reliability of this difference should therefore be discussed.]

C 1.3. Reliability coefficients of various types should be reported even when tests are recommended solely for empirical prediction of criteria. DESIRABLE

[Comment: The E.R.C. Stenographic Aptitude Test reports validity coefficients without also giving an estimate of reliability. For certain judgments, such as the potential effect of lengthening the test, information about reliability is required and should be available to the user.]

C 1.4. The manual should report whether the standard error of measurement varies at different score levels. If there is significant change in the error of measurement from level to level, this fact should be properly interpreted. VERY DESIRABLE

[Comment: Terman and Merrill point out that differences in IQ from Form L to Form M of the Stanford-Binet Scale are much larger for IQ's above 100 than for low IQ's.]

C 2. *The manual should avoid any implication that reliability measures demonstrate validity of the test as a predictor of other variables. ESSENTIAL*

C 3. *In reports of reliability, procedures and sample should be described sufficiently for the reader to judge whether the evidence applies to the individual or group with which he is concerned. ESSENTIAL*

C 3.1. Evidence of reliability should be obtained under conditions like those in which the author recommends that the test be used. VERY DESIRABLE

[Comment: The maturity of the group, the variation in the group, and the attitude of the group toward the test should represent normal conditions of test use. For example, the reliability of a test to be used in selecting employees should be determined by testing applicants for positions rather than by testing college students, or workers already employed.]

C 3.2. The sample should be described in terms of any selective factors related to the variable being measured, usually including age, sex, and educational level. Number of cases of each type should be reported. ESSENTIAL

C 3.3. Appropriate measures of central tendency and variability of the test scores of the sample should be reported. ESSENTIAL

C 3.3.1. Reliability coefficients corrected for restriction of range may be reported. The manual should also report the uncorrected coefficient, together with the standard deviation of the group tested and the standard deviation assumed for the corrected sample. In discussing such coefficients, emphasis should be placed on the one which refers to the degree of variation within which discrimination is normally required. ESSENTIAL

C 3.4. Where the sample can be divided into subclasses which differ in their scores on the test, and when the test is ordinarily required to make discriminations within such a subclass, a reliability coefficient should be reported for each subclass. VERY DESIRABLE

[Comment: The Mechanical Reasoning section of the Differential Aptitude tests has different reliability for boys and girls. For this and other

sections, the manual gives reliability for each sex and grade.]

C 3.5. *Where two trials of a test are correlated, the time between testings should be stated. ESSENTIAL*

Equivalence of Forms

C 4. *If two forms of a test are made available, with both forms intended for possible use with the same subjects, the correlation between forms and information as to the equivalence of scores on the two forms should be reported. ESSENTIAL*

C 4.1. Where the content of the test items can be described meaningfully, a comparative analysis of the forms is desirable to show how similar they are. DESIRABLE

Internal Consistency

C 5. *A coefficient of internal consistency should be reported if the manual suggests that a score is a measure of a generalized, homogeneous trait. ESSENTIAL*

C 6. *Coefficients of internal consistency should be determined by the split-half method or methods of the Kuder-Richardson type, if these can properly be used on the data under examination. Any other measure of internal consistency which the author wishes to report in addition should be carefully explained. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: There will no doubt be unusual circumstances where special coefficients give added information. There are grave dangers of giving unwarranted impressions, however, as is illustrated in the case of the Brainard Occupational Preference Inventory. This test yields a set of scores which are interpreted as a profile. The manual reports no information on the reliability of these scores, but does report a "total reliability" based on a formula by Ghiselli. This reliability seems not to correspond to any score actually interpreted, and what it indicates about the value of this particular test is unclear without more discussion than the manual provides.]

C 6.1. Split-half or Kuder-Richardson coefficients for time-limit tests should never be reported unless (a) the manual also reports evidence that speed of work has negligible influence on scores, or (b) the coefficient is based on the correlation between parts administered under separate time limits. ESSENTIAL

[Comment: Evidence of accuracy of measurement for highly speeded tests is properly obtained by retesting or testing with independent equivalent forms.]

C 6.11. If better evidence is not available, lower-bounds formulas designed for estimating the internal consistency of speeded tests may be used to determine the minimum coefficient. DESIRABLE

C 6.2. If several questions within a test are experimentally linked so that the reaction to one question influences the reaction to another, the entire group should be treated as an "item" in applying the split-half or analysis-of-variance methods. ESSENTIAL

[Comment: In a reading test, several questions about the same paragraph are experimentally dependent. All of these questions should be placed in the same half-test in using the split-half method. In the Kuder-Richardson method, the score on the group of questions should be treated as an "item" score.]

C 6.3. If a test can be divided into sets of items of different content, internal consistency should be determined by procedures designed for such tests. VERY DESIRABLE

[Comment: One such procedure is the division of the test into "parallel" half-tests; another is to apply the Jackson-Ferguson "battery reliability" formula.]

C 6.4. The manual should not imply that a result by an analysis-of-variance (e.g., Kuder-Richardson) formula is "conservative," or that the actual reliability is greater than the coefficient obtained. ESSENTIAL

[Comment: Statements of this character are frequently correct, but are inadvisable because they are subject to serious misinterpretation.]

Stability

C 7. *The manual should indicate what degree of stability of scores may be expected if a test is repeated at various later times. If such evidence is not presented, the absence of information regarding stability should be noted. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: Stability should be high for some tests. Other tests which seek to measure transient characteristics are ineffective if their stability is too high. For vocational guidance, an interest measure should be stable, but for planning short-range curricular experiences, stability is not necessary.]

C 7.1. Stability should be determined by administering the test at different times. The manual should report changes in mean score and correlation between the two sets of scores. ESSENTIAL

C 7.11. In determining stability of scores by repeated testing, other precautions such as giving alternate forms of the test should be used to minimize recall of specific answers. VERY DESIRABLE

D. Administration and Scoring

D 1. *The directions for administration should be presented with sufficient clarity that the test user can duplicate the administrative conditions under which the norms and validity data were obtained. ESSENTIAL*

D 1.1. The published directions should be complete enough so that people tested will understand the task in the way the author intended. VERY DESIRABLE

[Comment: For some tests it is desired to make completely clear whether the person should guess when uncertain, whether he should strive for speed or accuracy, etc. In other tests, notably projective techniques, it is intended that the subject make certain interpretations in his own way. In either case, the directions should be designed to standardize whatever aspects of performance are not intended to vary from subject to subject.]

D 2. *Where subjective processes enter into the scoring of the test, evidence on degree of agreement between two independent scorings should be presented. If such evidence is not provided, the manual should draw attention to scorer error as a possible source of error of measurement. ESSENTIAL*

D 2.1. In studies of scorer agreement, the bases for scoring and the procedure for training the scorers should be described in sufficient detail to permit other scorers to reach the degree of agreement reported by the manual. VERY DESIRABLE

E. Scales and Norms

E 1. *Scales used for reporting scores should be such as to increase the likelihood of accurate interpretation and emphasis by test interpreter and subject. ESSENTIAL*

[Comment: Scales in which test scores are reported are extremely varied. Raw scores are used.

Relative scores are used. Scales purporting to represent equal intervals with respect to some external dimension (such as age) are used. And so on. It is unwise to discourage the development of new scaling methods by insisting on one form of reporting. On the other hand, many different systems are now used which have no logical advantage, one over the other. Our proposal that the number of systems now used be reduced to a few with which testers can become familiar is not intended to discourage the use of unique scales for special problems. Suggestions as to preferable scales for general reporting are not intended to restrict use of other scales in research studies.]

E 1.1. Test norms should be expressed in terms of the same scale as the scores reported to the test interpreter and client. **ESSENTIAL**

E 2. *Where there is no compelling advantage to suggest reporting scores in some other form, the manual should suggest reporting scores in terms of percentile equivalents or standard scores. VERY DESIRABLE*

[Comment: Professional opinion is divided on the question whether mental test scores should be reported in terms of some theoretical growth scale, such as the intelligence quotient or the Heineis index. Thus, an investigator who has a rationale for such scales as these should use them if he regards them as especially adequate. On the other hand, there is no theoretical justification for scoring mental tests in terms of an "IQ" which is not derived in terms of the theory underlying the Binet IQ and which has different statistical properties than the IQ does. Standard or percentile scores would be preferable to arbitrarily defined IQ scales such as are used in the Otis Gamma and Wechsler-Bellevue tests.]

E 2.1. Standard scores obtained by transforming scores so that they have a normal distribution and a fixed mean and standard deviation are preferable, unless there is a substantial reason to choose some other type of derived score. **VERY DESIRABLE**

E 2.11. If a two-digit standard score system is used, the mean of that system should be 50 and the standard deviation 10. **DESIRABLE**

E 2.12. If a one-digit standard score system is used, the mean of the system should be 5 and the standard deviation 2 (as in stanines). **DESIRABLE**

[Comment: The foregoing are proposed as ways of standardizing practice among test developers. It

is expected that institutions with established systems, such as the 400-point College Board scale, will retain them as suited to their purposes.]

E 2.3. Where percentile scores are to be plotted on a profile sheet, the profile sheet should be based on the normal probability scale. **VERY DESIRABLE**

E 3. *Except where the primary use of a test is to compare individuals with their own local group, norms should be published at the time of release of the test for operational use. ESSENTIAL*

E 3.1. Even though a test is used primarily with local norms, the manual should aid the user who lacks local norms to compare an individual's performance to the expected performance of members of some appropriate reference group. **DESIRABLE**

E 4. *Norms should report the distribution of scores in an appropriate reference group or groups. ESSENTIAL*

E 4.1. In addition, standards showing what expectation a person with a given test score has of attaining some criterion score should be given where possible. Conversion tables translating test scores into proficiency levels should be given when proficiency can be described on a meaningful absolute scale. **DESIRABLE**

[Comment: Such expectancy norms might indicate probability of attaining a certain typing speed, or a level of reading comprehension specified in terms of illustrative paragraphs.]

E 5. *Norms should be based on defined and clearly described populations. These populations should be the groups to whom users of the test will ordinarily wish to compare the persons tested. ESSENTIAL*

E 5.1. The manual should report the method of sampling within the population, and should discuss any probable bias within the sample. **ESSENTIAL**

E 5.11. Norms based on a planned sample of the population are always preferable to a sample selected primarily on the basis of availability, and should be used wherever possible. **VERY DESIRABLE**

[Comment: Occupational and educational test norms have often been based on scattered groups of test papers, and authors sometimes request that users mail in results for use in subsequent reports of norms. Distributions so obtained contain unknown bias and have little value.]

E 5.2. The manual should report whether scores differ for groups differing on age, sex, amount of training, and other equally important variables. **ESSENTIAL**

E 5.2.1. If such differences exist, and if an interpretation based on norms for the person's own group leads to substantially different recommendations and treatment than an interpretation based on the general norms, then separate norm tables should be provided in the manual for each group. **ESSENTIAL**

[Comment: An example of unusually excellent practice is the norms for the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. Here norms are based on teachers separated by levels of experience, amounts of training, and type of position. The teachers were obtained by a planned sample. The manual discusses differences between sex groups but does not present separate norms, as the decision to employ a particular man teacher rather than a woman would be based on the raw score of each, rather than upon their standings within their sex group.]

E 5.3. Some profile sheets record, side by side, scores from tests so standardized that different scores compare the person to different norm groups. Profiles of this type should be recommended for use only where tests are intended to assess or predict the person's standing in different situations, where he competes with the different groups. Where such mixed scales are compared, the fact that the norm groups differ should be made clear on the profile sheet. **VERY DESIRABLE**

E 6. The description of the norm groups should be sufficiently complete that the user can judge how his case differs from the group. The description should include number of cases, classified by relevant variables such as age, sex, educational status, etc. **ESSENTIAL**

E 6.1. The conditions under which normative data were obtained should be reported. The conditions of testing, including the purpose of the subjects in taking the test, should be reported. **ESSENTIAL**

Comment

Notehand for Psychologists

To save time and energy, systems of shorthand were developed as early as the first century A.D., and systems of notehand, which is less technical, much earlier.

As I remarked in the *American Psychologist* in 1947, few persons know shorthand; and any shorthand not written by an expert can be read only by the individual who wrote it and soon becomes "cold" for him. I therefore outlined a system of notehand adapted from Melvil Dewey (1) and others, which I had developed and tested in drafting copy for various readers and typists throughout 30 years, and offered to send a copy of this system to anyone in return for the approximate cost (3).

The response to that article stimulated several basic improvements, revision of the system to accord with them, and practical tests. The revised system uses capitalization only as in ordinary writing, except for the usual psychological *E* and *S*; improved abbreviations for many common words, general categories, and technical terms; abbreviations for a number of central roots and other common letter-groups; and, with certain exceptions, systematic abbreviation of suffixes. The abbreviations of central roots, other common letter-groups, and suffixes shorten hundreds of words that do not appear in the list. The remaining abbreviations are relatively consistent and few to avoid ambiguities.

Some 25 of the new abbreviations come, by kind permission, from Richard B. Seymour, who has developed a more elaborate system designed for typing (2). Thus his system accords with a general suggestion of F. L. Wells (4).

The present system reduces ordinary writing about 30 per cent and psychological writing, 35 per cent. It is primarily for making notes, drafting letters, manuscripts, etc., by hand. Some of the system cannot be typed. By using the system only in handwriting one can keep one's typing formal, as often it must be. However, much of the system can be adapted to typing.

Through adopting items progressively, the system is easy to learn to write. It is also easy to learn to read, especially when used only within complete sentences and regular punctuation.

Mimeographed copies of the revised system are available at cost. Send \$.20 in cash or \$.21 in stamps (foreign, \$.24 in postal-exchange slip) to 15 Pierce Hall, Northampton, Massachusetts.

REFERENCES

1. DEWEY, M. *Notehand and other labor-savers*. Lake Placid Club, N. Y.: General Shorthand Corp., 1942.

2. SEYMOUR, R. B. *A system of notehand*. Lincoln, Nebr.: (Univer. Nebr.) Author, 1951.
3. TAYLOR, W. S. Notehand for psychologists. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1947, 2, 106-107.
4. WELLS, F. L. Professor Taylor and the problem of notehand. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1947, 2, 525-527.

WILLIAM S. TAYLOR
Smith College

Industrial Psychology on the Undergraduate Level

Recently, the psychology department of the School of Business and Civic Administration of the College of the City of New York introduced a specialization group, or, as it is more commonly known, a college major, in industrial psychology. Although this school grants only the degree of Bachelor of Business Administration and most students major either in the field of accountancy or business administration, the faculty of the psychology department noted that a certain number of students were intensely interested in pursuing psychology as a profession. Of these, upon graduation from the College a fair proportion matriculated at various graduate schools of psychology. Such students, interested in the applications of psychology, have preferred to do their undergraduate work at the School of Business rather than at the College of Liberal Arts, where for years a major in psychology has been offered, even though this necessitated majoring in some field other than that of their primary interest.

So far as we know, an undergraduate specialization in industrial psychology is an innovation. Most innovations are likely to be controversial. This one will almost certainly prove no exception. The novel aspects immediately raise two issues: first, should an undergraduate in psychology be permitted to specialize in industrial psychology and, second, is such a specialization appropriate for a school of business?

The sponsors of this program obviously believe both questions deserve an affirmative answer. There has been a continual trend in the American college toward specialization. Schools of business are among the later manifestations of this trend. The curriculum has been enriched in most colleges so that the number of different subjects taught is now much greater than before. The natural consequence is to lead to specialization in areas in which it formerly was not feasible. Thus, not so many years ago psychology departments were affiliated with philosophy departments or education departments. This situation is no longer so widespread. A specialization in industrial psychology seems particularly appropriate for a school of business where

such subjects as economics, law, and other courses related to the industrial scene are already required for all students.

Whereas it might not have been appropriate to offer a major on the undergraduate level in industrial psychology as recently as ten years ago, a student is now able to take a sufficiently wide variety of courses related to industrial psychology to allow for such a reality.

The primary objective of the specialization offering industrial psychology is to prepare students for work in graduate school by training them to use statistical and experimental techniques, by familiarizing them with the various aspects of the applications of psychology, and by emphasizing the need for more knowledge in pure psychology as well as for advanced training in the applied field. Although it is recognized that occasionally such training may lead to limited psychotechnical positions of a terminal variety, the student is clearly informed of the preprofessional nature of this specialization group. The student is advised that the BBA degree with the specialization in industrial psychology will not result in the person's being employed as an industrial psychologist.

As prerequisite to admission in the specialization group a course in psychology and a course in statistics are required. A minimum of twenty-four college credits is required in the specialization group. Five courses are considered a common core and required of all students. These courses are vocational psychology, industrial psychology, interview techniques, advanced statistical methods, and experimental psychology. These requirements total sixteen credits. The remaining eight or more credits are of an elective nature; to complete the specialization group students elect courses from a larger offering. In the psychology department such courses are field trips in the psychology of business and industry, advanced personnel testing, the psychology of advertising, and any of the many typical liberal arts courses in psychology. The department also encourages students to elect in their specialization group certain other courses offered in other departments—for example, such courses as those in time and motion study, job evaluation, induction procedures and training programs, industrial sociology, etc.

Students normally elect their specialization group during their upper sophomore semester. Since the permission of the department is required for a major in industrial psychology, we have had to face the problem of accepting or rejecting an applicant. At present, admission is based on a personal interview during which emphasis is placed on the necessity for planning matriculation at graduate school. An annotated bibliography concerning the field of industrial psychology is distributed and an attempt is made to clarify each student's

ultimate vocational objective. Each instructor is informed whenever a student in the specialization group is in his course and the department holds two seminar meetings each semester for the majors. By carefully following the student during his last two years, the department expects to be in a position to make realistic recommendations when the student does apply for graduate work.

To evaluate such a program and to judge its full significance will take a number of years. In the meantime, it is believed that a description of the undergraduate specialization in industrial psychology might be of interest to psychologists in industry as well as those in the colleges who are training future psychologists. Questions and comments are especially welcome.

MILTON L. BLUM

College of the City of New York

The Licensing Law in Georgia

On February 21, 1951, the Georgia legislature approved House Bill No. 255, an "Act Creating and Establishing a State Board of Examiners of Psychologists." This Board is to consist of three members to be appointed by the governor. The bill states that "one member of the Board is to be chosen from and shall be a member of the faculty, with the rank of assistant professor or above, of the accredited colleges and universities in the state, and two members shall be licensed applied psychologists or qualified for licensure under the terms of the act." After the original members of the Board have served, all subsequent appointments are to be for three-year terms.

All appointments to the Board by the governor are to be made from a list of qualified members of the Georgia Psychological Association to be furnished to the governor by said association.

Before entering upon the duties of their office, the members of the Board are required to take the constitutional oath of office and file the same in the Office of the Governor, who then issues to each member a certificate of appointment. The Board must have available for the governor a detailed record of proceedings and present an annual report to him.

The members of the first State Board of Examiners of Psychologists are: Austin S. Edwards, University of Georgia, Athens; Hermon W. Martin, Emory University; Laurence W. Ross, Union Bag and Paper Co., Savannah.

Dr. R. C. Coleman, Joint Secretary of Examining Boards, functions as Secretary of the Board of Examiners of Psychologists.

Each member of the Board receives all necessary expenses incident to holding meetings, provided that expenses do not exceed the fees collected by the Board.

The Board issues licenses to approved applicants, said licenses being signed by the President of the Board of Examiners and attested by the joint-secretary, under the Board's adopted seal.

According to the provisions of the act, "No person shall use the title 'Licensed Applied Psychologist' in this state without a license granted by said Board of Examiners of Psychologists and signed by same. No person not licensed as provided in this Act shall designate himself or his occupation by the words 'Licensed Applied Psychologist,' nor shall such person designate himself by any other term or title which implies that he is practicing professional psychology, unless he has a valid license."

Any person who violates any provisions of the act is considered guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction shall be fined no less than one hundred dollars nor more than five hundred dollars.

It is the duty of the joint-secretary, under the direction of the Board, to aid the solicitors in the enforcement of this law and the prosecution of persons charged with the violation of its provisions.

Certain exceptions in the Act were provided:

"Nothing in this Act shall be construed to limit the activities and services of a person in the employ of or serving an established and recognized religious organization, an established and recognized social welfare agency, or the use of psychological techniques by organizations engaged in business, commerce, or industry, or by persons within their salaried employ provided that the title 'applied psychologist' is not used by a person not licensed and that the professional practice of psychology is not implied by a person not licensed under this Act."

Persons who are employed in federal, state, county, or municipal agencies, or in chartered educational institutions, or who are students in training in chartered educational institutions are exempted when practicing in their agencies or institutions, as are technicians, assistants, or interns working under the supervision of licensed individuals.

A candidate for a license must furnish the Board of Examiners of Psychologists with satisfactory evidence that he (a) is of good moral character; (b) is a citizen of the United States or has legally declared his intension of becoming one; (c) has received a degree of doctor of philosophy in psychology from an accredited educational institution recognized by the Board as maintaining satisfactory standards, or, in lieu of said degree, a doctoral degree in a closely allied field if it is the opinion of the Board that the training required therefor is substantially similar; (d) has had at least one year of experience in applied psychology of a type considered by the Board to be qualifying in

nature; (e) is competent in applied psychology, as shown by passing such examinations, written or oral, or both, as the Board deems necessary; and (f) has not within the preceding six months failed an examination given by the Board. The Board at its discretion may accept satisfactory substitute training and experience in lieu of that described under (c) and (d) above.

Examinations of applicants for a license are to be held at least once annually. The Board is to determine the methods to be used and the subject fields to be covered. The Board may require the examination to be written or oral, or both. If an examination is written, the paper is to be designated by a number instead of the applicant's name so that his identity shall not be disclosed until the papers have been graded.

For a period of two years from the effective date of the law, the Board may waive either an assembled examination or the requirement of a PhD. To merit such a waiver, the applicant must have engaged in the practice of applied psychology for at least three years full time, or its equivalent. The Board may also grant a license without an assembled examination to any person residing or employed in the state, if the person is licensed or certified by a similar board of another state whose standards, in the opinion of the Georgia Board, are not lower than those required by this law, or who has been certified by the American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology.

Suspension, refusal, or revocation of a license is provided in the law on these grounds: the employment of fraud or deception in applying for a license or in passing the examination; conviction of felony; the practice of applied psychology under a false or assumed name or the impersonation of another practitioner; habitual intemperance in the use of ardent spirits, narcotics, or stimulants to such an extent as to incapacitate the individual for the performance of his duties.

The Georgia licensing bill is the result of the cooperative efforts of the psychologists in the state. They were greatly aided by the physicians who were members of the legislature in 1951. Several years of preliminary work preceded the actual passage of the bill. The several presidents of the Georgia Psychological Association deserve much credit for the ultimate success of the movement: Hermon W. Martin, Joseph E. Moore, Austin S. Edwards, M. C. Langhorne, and James E. Greene. The legislative committee, which did much fine work when the bill was finally passed in 1951, was composed of: Austin S. Edwards, Hermon W. Martin, Sidney Q. Janus, Laurence W. Ross, John Warkentin, and Joseph E. Moore, Chairman.

FLORENE M. YOUNG
University of Georgia

Across the Secretary's Desk

A NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS BUILDING FOR APA

The APA owns a building. After more than a year of intensive searching, investigating, and dickering by the Building Committee,¹ a deal has been consummated. On May fifteenth the District of Columbia Board of Zoning Adjustment gave the APA permission to occupy the property we had most recently bargained for, and on May sixteenth money and the deed changed hands. On July eighteenth, local authorities issued a permit for proposed remodeling. Officially, psychologists own a building; now we face the jobs of (a) remodeling it and (b) paying for it.

The building (see picture) is located at 1333 Sixteenth Street N.W., at the corner of O Street. It is one block north of Scott Circle, three blocks north of the Statler Hotel, five blocks north of the White House, and one block south of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. It is within two blocks of the American Chemical Society, the American Council of Learned Societies, the National Education Association, and the National Geographic Society. It is within three blocks of the American Council of Education and the many organizations housed in the ACE building. Geographically, psychology will be in good company.

The building was erected somewhat before 1900 by Burke Cochrane, congressman from New York. It was almost completely rebuilt in the 1920's by a wealthy coal operator who had a number of eligible and sociable daughters. At that time, the building was expanded, equipped with gargoyles and made over in the style of a French chateau. Its plumbing was not essentially altered. In the mid-thirties, the building fell on evil days and was used as a rooming house. For the past three years it has been vacant.

The house is of brick construction but has enough steel in it to keep it sound and unsagging. Outside, the masonry has been surfaced with concrete so as to give the appearance of sandstone construction.

The building now contains five stories, thirty rooms, and ten baths. There are approximately

15,000 square feet of floor space in the main building and an additional 3,000 or so, not including a dungeon-like, iron-doored wine cellar, in the very solid coach house in the rear. In decor, the building is characterized by such things as vast areas of walnut parquet flooring, a double staircase of mahogany, walnut paneling over extensive areas of wall, large stone fireplaces, one of which seems to have been imported from Europe; diaphanously draped nymphs gamboling on the ceilings, and a 30' x 30' conservatory with a Wundt-like figure spewing water into a tiled fountain.

Superficially, the house is in miserable shape. Condensation and a cluttered gutter have done considerable damage to walls, ceilings, and floors. Our architect says, however, that all damage can be repaired with relative ease by plasterers, scrapers, and painters. The building will need the additional repairs and remodeling listed below.

FINANCES

The building, when renovation is completed, will represent a \$230,000 investment for American psychology. The asking price for the property, in its state of splendid disrepair, was \$110,000. Our real estate consultant agreed it was probably worth this amount but advised us to offer \$75,000. We did. No deal. There was hard dickering between the owner and the Building Committee. The price settled down at \$90,000. The Board of Directors, after studying estimates of reconditioning costs, authorized its purchase at that price. Original estimates indicated that for an additional \$110,000 we could repair the building and put it completely in shape for a new start in life. As almost everybody seems to have anticipated, however, unanticipated factors have run the final estimate up to \$140,000 for remodeling and furnishing, and a total of \$230,000 for the whole project. Our experts agree that we have a pretty good bargain at this price, that the renovated building will be immediately worth a quarter of a million dollars on the current Washington market—which, our local experts sagely observe, has never gone any way but up. It does seem very possible that our building, since it is located in what most people would regard as the two "worst" blocks on the whole length of prestigious Sixteenth Street, will appreciate in value

¹ The Building Committee, appointed by the Board of Directors in 1950, was chaired by Jerry W. Carter, with Dael Wolfe and F. H. Sanford, members.

as these two blocks gradually improve—a trend we may well accelerate by reconditioning and beautifying our own building.

With the approval of the Board of Directors, the House Committee² secured on a formal basis the services of the architects who have served as our advisors (Johnson and Boutin) and arranged to work with a highly recommended contractor (V. J. Miller Construction Company). The contractor and architects have secured competitive bids from subcontractors for the various parts of the project and we now have relatively firm estimates of what the entire project is going to cost. The following list gives a few details of planned alterations and indicates the approximate costs.

Elevator and elevator shaft	\$ 20,000
Painting interior, exterior, and coach house	11,000
Plastering; replacing much injured plaster, plastering new partitions	13,000
Refinishing floors	1,000
Rough carpentry (un-carpentering mostly)	2,000
New plumbing (necessary if we do not wish to gamble on broken pipes)	9,000
New wiring (required by new building codes) ...	10,000
New heating system (probably gas, cheaper in the long run)	9,000
Repair coach house for use as office by potential tenant	5,000
Air conditioning (3 large units to cover four floors of building)	15,000
Furnishing and moving	15,000
Repair and insulate roof	4,000
Architects' fee (normally 15%)	12,000
Contractor's fee (normally 10%)	5,000
Contingency	3,000
<hr/> Total, remodeling costs	<hr/> \$137,000
Purchase price, including fees	93,000
<hr/> Total	<hr/> \$230,000

For this total of \$230,000 we will have a building in most respects as good as new. In many respects, of course, it will be better than new if (a) any value is placed on such tangible things as walnut paneling, sculptured ceilings, and leaded windows and (b) if there is appreciation of such things as graciousness of air and spaciousness of vista. The cost of building these things—tangibles or intangibles—into a new structure would be prohibitive. The building and coach house contain a

² The House Committee, originally appointed by the Board of Directors in September 1951, is composed of Jerry W. Carter, chairman; Thelma Hunt, Harry J. Older, and F. H. Sanford.

total of about 225,000 cubic feet. This space will thus cost us about \$1.00 per cubic foot. New school buildings now cost about \$1.25 per cubic foot and modern office buildings cost around \$1.75 per cubic foot. If we calculate replacement cost of our main building at \$1.50 a cubic foot and of our coach house at \$1.00 a cubic foot and if we place a value of \$60,000 on our land, we arrive at the figure of \$372,000 for a new building of the same size in a comparable location. An already existing building in a state of good repair would cost us more than the \$1.00 per cubic foot we are paying.

Perhaps, in an office building, square footage is a more important consideration than cubic footage. Our property contains a total of about 18,000 square feet. Thus the property will cost us something under \$13.00 per square foot. The other building the Board seriously considered would have cost around \$20.00 per square foot. (Not all of the 18,000 square feet represent "net" space—space immediately usable for offices. There are large foyers and corridors. Much of this nonfunctional space, however, can be converted to "net" space if we ever need to be rigorously efficient in the use of the building.)

All in all, the objective observer would probably agree that the Association has a good buy.

The best present estimates of annual operating expenses are as follows:

Heat, light, gas	\$2,000
Upkeep	1,000
Insurance	600
Janitor (housed on top floor of building)	2,000
<hr/>	<hr/>
	\$5,600

These figures do not include lost interest on the money that will go into the property nor do they take account of the \$3,000 annual rent we will save. At present rates of interest on our investments, however, these two figures will come close to canceling each other, leaving a figure somewhere between five and six thousand a year to operate the building.

There is good possibility that we can lease some of our space to related organizations. Already one organization is seriously interested in occupying the second floor of the coach house. (We will use the first floor for parking.) Current indications are that we can realize \$3,000 a year from this space if we air condition it and refurbish it tastefully. We can get another \$4,000 or more per year from

the rental of the fourth floor in the main building, space which APA clearly does not now need. There is no absolute certainty that the Board of Zoning Adjustment will allow us to have tenants, but there is a good possibility that we can realize \$7,000 or more income from the property. This income will at least operate the building and perhaps pay enough interest to finance a few pages in our journals.

THE PROCESS OF REMODELING

The Board of Directors has set down certain general principles to guide the remodeling of the building and has instructed the House Committee to take over the detailed supervision of the job. The House Committee first had the architects draw up plans that seemed to represent the best general implementation of the Board's instructions. These plans were submitted to the Board and given general approval. The plans were based on an optimistic over-all budget of \$200,000 for the project. Then it became apparent that the building, to meet sound standards of safety and efficiency, would need new plumbing, new wiring, and a new heating plant. Failure to replace any of these three items would jeopardize the total investment. Most members of the Board expressed no surprise at this development and voted to authorize a total budget of \$230,000. Operating with this budget the architects and contractor then set to work sifting competitive subcontracts for the separate parts of the job. These subcontracts will be studied by the architects and contractor and reported to the House Committee who will, in turn, study them before the contractor signs them. The furnishings and interior decorating will be handled by a member of the architects' firm and will be under supervision of a subcommittee of the House Committee. The architects have access to the skills of electrical engineers, heating engineers, and lighting engineers. All told, the project will involve approximately 7,263 separate decisions. The established mechanism can probably handle the load and can probably be counted on to yield a good proportion of intelligent decisions—if no member of the House Committee cracks under the strain or escapes to a trout stream.

The over-all principles followed in the remodeling project are (a) that we're building for 50 years, (b) that we should not skimp or cut corners but (c) that we get about \$1.08 solid value for every dollar spent.

All in all, the building will represent a very comfortable, very handsome home for American psychology. It will be furnished well but not lavishly, in the general manner of a good faculty club. It will be well heated in the winter and well cooled in summer. (Washington administrators estimate that air conditioning pays for itself in a few years in terms of assistance in securing, keeping, and keeping efficient, members of an office force. It's not the heat; it's the humidity.) Its roof will be slate, its pipes copper, its wires new, its beams sturdy, its walls smooth, and its floors gleaming. With reasonable care the building should be good for fifty years of use. If it then falls apart, we—or the APA members of the next century—will have an ideal site for the erection of such a structure as may prove suitable.

We will have adequate room for present and foreseeable Central Office functions. We will have, glory be, space for employees and visitors to park their cars. We will have comfortable and pleasant places for visiting members to sit when they come to the Central Office. We will have a commodious Board Room for use by our own groups and by any of psychology's friends toward whom we feel hospitable impulses. The many psychologists who have business in Washington will have a place to meet with their colleagues or with representatives of government—a place of which they may well be proud. We can, if the Association so wills, install the complete psychological library that some members want and the psychological museum desired by others.

Many members of APA think it right and proper and highly desirable that American psychology overcome its "poor man's complex" and represent itself to itself and to the world at large as what it is—a cardinal significant factor in the intellectual and social development of American culture. There are many people in Washington and elsewhere who make decisions affecting the science and the profession of psychology without having the time nor the inclination to figure us out as we really are. They react to us as we represent ourselves to be. The new National Headquarters puts a collar, tie, shoes, and a respectable suit on American psychology, moves it down out of the attic and gives it a front room on the first floor. It tells the world that we are respectable, responsible people, and that along with the American Chemical Society, the American Association for the Advancement of

Science, the National Educational Association, and the American Council of Learned Societies APA is here to stay as a solid and integral part of the American scene. There cannot be much doubt that psychology, both as a science and as a profession, has arrived. Home ownership appropriately symbolizes this arrival and will assist psychology in many ways to commit well the responsibilities that come with public acceptance.

Neither the architects nor the contractor will—or can—give us precise answers about a moving date. It is clear that the elevator cannot be installed until December or January. There seems a fair chance that the Central Office can move in by October first. There is no doubt that APA members attending the Annual Meeting in Washington will have an opportunity for knot-holing the project. Perhaps there can be some sort of reception in the building or in parts of it that are completed, with members sitting on saw-horses sociably sipping ginger ale. Maybe we can have some sort of unveiling or christening or wetting-down ceremony. At any rate many members will have a chance to see much of what they own and at least to visualize the rest.

PAYING FOR THE PROPERTY

Owing to the astuteness of past administration of the Association's finances, we had, at the end of 1951, an enviable total of \$155,000 in our building fund. Last September the Council of Representatives voted that we should raise by contributions from our members any supplementary amount needed for the building project. This means that we will need \$75,000 to pay for the property. This averages out to about \$7.50 per member. The Board of Directors has decided against an assessment and in favor of purely voluntary contributions. There has been a good deal of talk about ways of conducting a campaign for funds, about ways of organizing things so that psychologists could contribute in ways most compatible with their own impulses. Do we simply tell our members about the need and ask them to help, or should we invent mechanisms for the gentle shepherding of impulses to insure that psychologists give into their genuine and generous inclinations rather than some wayward bent toward retentiveness? Should all gifts be anonymous or should there be public recognition of those who give?

Should we have procedures whereby groups of psychologists can contribute to memorializations of psychology's revered figures? Is a direct appeal by mail likely to be adequate or do we need the personal approach to those thought to have the means to make heavy contributions? Should we appeal directly to our members as individuals or should we work through local, state, and regional organizations of psychologists?

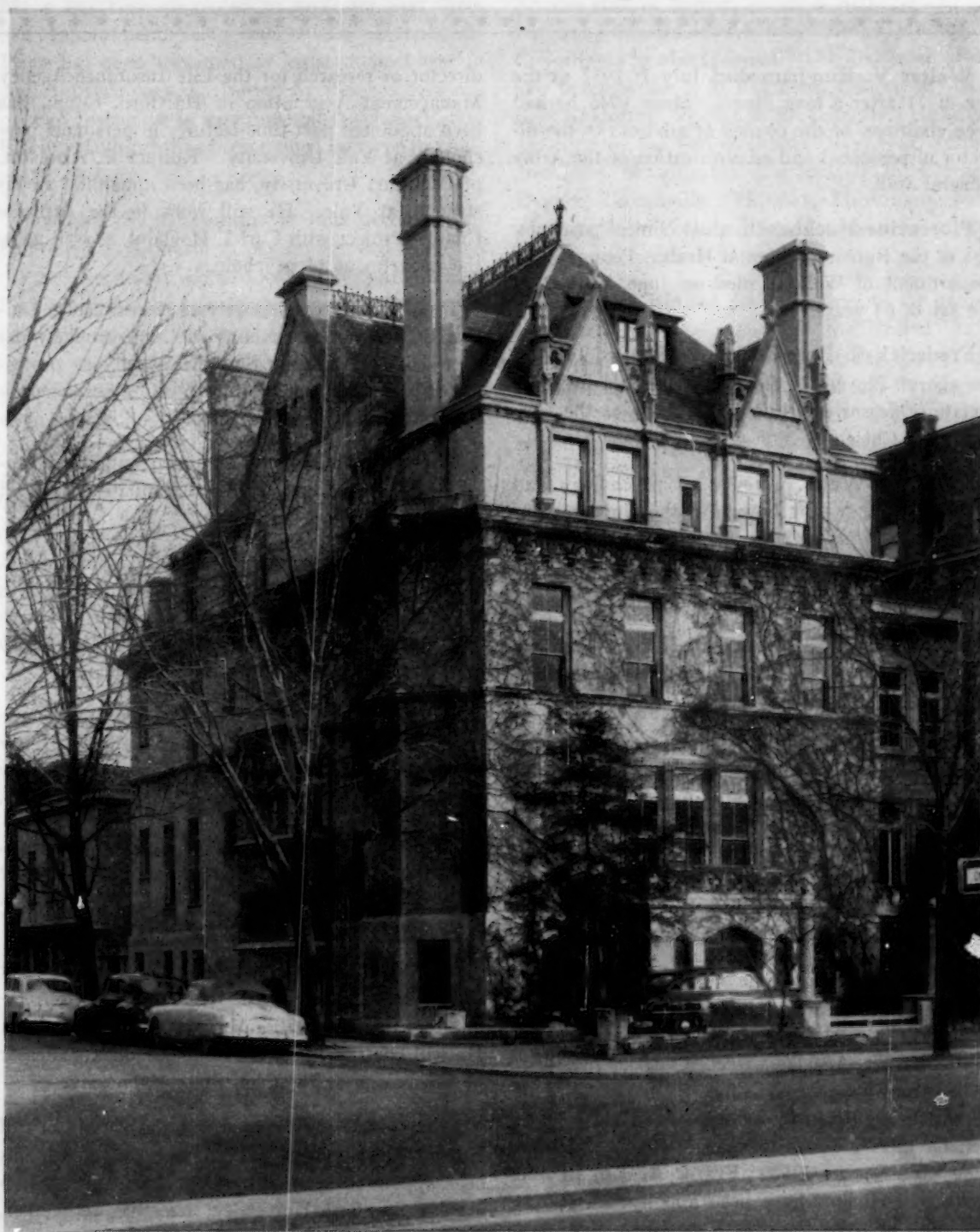
Some sort of campaign will begin in the fall when psychologists settle down after their summer peregrinations. The Board of Directors and Council of Representatives will discuss in September the nature of this campaign and will welcome suggestions from anyone who has ideas and/or feelings about the sort of questions raised above.

A number of people, having heard that a building has been purchased and that funds are needed, have jumped the gun and have made completely spontaneous contributions. During the summer the chairman of the department at Northwestern "got to musing" that the Board and Council would appreciate some early support and approval for having decided on so large a project. He mentioned his musings to his colleagues. They agreed that the musings were good. The resulting contribution, in therapeutic and negotiable terms, was handsome.

At a meeting in June the Finance Committee, while talking about other matters, suddenly came down with an involvement in the building project. Each attending member wrote out a check on the spot. The absent member, by apparently telepathic means, caught the same fever and sent in a check. The Illinois Psychological Association has made a contribution. The Midwestern Psychological Association has declared its official interest in making a contribution as soon as the necessary negotiations are completed. Members of the APA Board of Directors made almost negotiable declarations of intent at the spring meeting but most of them have waited for the final facts on cost before writing checks.

These spontaneous combustions are bound to give great encouragement to Board and Council. They represent another bit of gratifying evidence that psychologists are involved in their national organization. Also, of course, the gifts represent hard cash. But \$75,000 is a considerable sum. There is a long way to go.

FILLMORE H. SANFORD



NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Psychological Notes and News

Walter V. Bingham died July 7, 1952 at the age of 71 after a long illness. Since 1946 he had been chairman of the council of advisors to the director of personnel and administration of the Army General Staff.

Florentine Hackbusch, chief clinical psychologist of the Bureau of Mental Health, Pennsylvania Department of Welfare, died on June 3, 1952 at the age of 64 years.

Frederick S. Breed died on May 16, 1952 at the age of 77 years. Since 1941 he had been associate professor emeritus of education at the University of Chicago.

R. R. G. Watt, professor of psychology and director of the testing bureau at the University of Southern California, died May 17. He was 50 years old.

Donald B. Lindsley, professor of psychology at the University of California, has been elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences.

C. R. Carpenter, professor of psychology at Pennsylvania State College, has been named the new head of the department of psychology. He will succeed **Bruce V. Moore** who retires with emeritus rank on October 1. Dr. Moore will become the executive officer of the APA's Education and Training Board and will be working in the Central Office in Washington.

Neal E. Miller has been appointed James Rowland Angell Professor of Psychology at Yale University. The newly established professorship commemorates Mr. Angell's sixteenth year as president of Yale, and his great influence in the founding of the Institute of Human Relations. Dr. Miller has been on the Yale faculty since 1936, having been made professor in 1950. **Frank A. Logan** and **Burton S. Rosner** have been appointed assistant professors of psychology at Yale University, part time. The remainder of their time will continue to be devoted to their activities as postdoctoral fellows under the Ford Foundation, in the Institute of Human Relations at Yale. **S. Rains Wallace**,

director of research for the Life Insurance Agency Management Association of Hartford, Conn., has been appointed part-time lecturer in personnel psychology at Yale University. **Robert P. Abelson**, of Princeton University, has been appointed an instructor at Yale. He will work in the Attitude Change Project with Carl I. Hovland, as well as in the department of psychology.

T. W. Richards, formerly at Northwestern University, will join the faculty of the psychology department of Louisiana State University as professor of psychology and associate professor of neuropsychiatry in the medical school.

Thomas W. Harrell has been appointed professor of applied psychology, Graduate School of Business, Stanford University.

Frank J. Harris has resigned his position as research psychologist with the U. S. Public Health Service and accepted a position as operations analyst at The Johns Hopkins University, Operations Research Office in Chevy Chase, Maryland.

Charles P. Sparks was recently elected to the board of directors of Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Company. He has been manager of the New Orleans office of the firm for the past three years.

John W. Reid, recently of Teachers College, Columbia University, has joined the staff of the department of psychology of Fort Hays Kansas State College at Hays, Kansas.

Carroll L. Shartle has been appointed director of research at the Human Resources Research Institute, Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base. He will continue on a part-time basis as professor of psychology at the Ohio State University.

Robert R. Sears, director of the Laboratory of Human Development at Harvard University, has been appointed head of the department of psychology at Stanford University, effective September, 1953.

Ivan D. London, formerly with the Russian Research Center, Harvard University, is now assistant professor of psychology at Brooklyn College.

At the University of Wisconsin **Frederick A. Mote** has been promoted to professor and three new appointments have been made. **Horace A. Page** has been appointed as assistant professor in clinical psychology, **E. James Archer** has been appointed instructor in experimental psychology, and **S. H. Friedman** has been named lecturer in clinical psychology.

Dwight W. Chapman, Jr. has accepted appointment as professor of psychology and chairman of the psychology department at Vassar College, beginning with the new academic year. During the past year he has been professor of social psychology at the University of Michigan. **M. Brewster Smith**, formerly professor of psychology and chairman of the department of psychology at Vassar, joined the New York staff of the Social Science Research Council on a part-time basis this spring.

Eugenia Hanfmann of the department of social relations, Harvard University, has accepted an appointment as associate professor of psychology and director of the psychology clinic at Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts.

Julius Laffal has been appointed research assistant in the department of psychiatry, Yale University.

Harold Bessell has been appointed psychologist on the staff of the Wichita Guidance Center.

Eli Z. Rubin has been the chief psychologist at the Emma Pendleton Bradley Home and on the teaching staff at Brown University since September of 1951. He was formerly with the children's psychiatric unit of the Massachusetts General Hospital and Boston University.

On February 15, 1952 **W. J. Humber** and **Paul J. Mundie** formed a partnership for the practice of industrial psychology in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. **John D. McClary** joined the firm as a partner on May 15.

R. J. Wentworth-Rohr, director of the Psychological Adjustment Services, 1 Fifth Avenue, New York City, announces the appointment of **F. F. Merino, MD**, as psychiatric consultant and **John Nichols, MD**, as medical consultant.

Edward M. Glaser has resigned from the Los Angeles staff of Rohrer, Hibler & Replogle and has founded Edward Glaser & Associates, Psychological Consultants to Management. The first office of the new organization is in Pasadena, California. **Hubert S. Coffey**, located in Berkeley, is a part-time associate in the San Francisco Bay Area. Other associates or affiliates are located in Chicago, Denver, Gainesville (Florida), Milwaukee, Minneapolis, New York and San Francisco to provide nation-wide service.

Joseph E. Barber, formerly chief of the advisement and guidance section of the United States Veterans Administration at Syracuse, New York, has been appointed an educational and training research specialist with the Bureau of Naval Personnel in Washington, D. C. Dr. Barber has been with the VA since June 1946.

L. D. Hartson is retiring from his professorship at Oberlin College. He will be visiting lecturer at Ohio State University in the department of psychology during the year 1952-53.

Samuel M. Seltzer is now clinical psychologist at the Mental Health Institute in Clarinda, Iowa.

Sheldon B. Peizer, formerly chief psychologist, institute for psychological services of the Illinois Institute of Technology, accepted a position as staff psychologist, Ohio State Reformatory, beginning July 1. **DeWitt E. Sell** is chief psychologist at the Ohio State Reformatory.

Benjamin G. Lewis, formerly clinical psychologist of the Shawnee Guidance Center, Topeka, Kansas, is now on the staff of the psychiatry department of the student health service at the University of Kansas.

Emanuel F. Hammer has given up his position of director of intern training at Lynchburg State Colony, Virginia, to accept an appointment on the research project at Psychiatric Institute, New York City. **Irving Jacks**, formerly psychologist at Attica Prison, has also accepted a position as research assistant on the research project at Psychiatric Institute.

The staff of the psychology section of McGuire VA Hospital, Richmond, Virginia, now includes the

following personnel: **William E. Harris**, chief; **Jacob Silverberg**, assistant chief; **William A. Zielonka**, **John J. McMillan**, and **Harold Lindner**. Clinical psychology trainees assigned to this hospital at the present time are: **Janet Haas**, **Twila Stoss**, **Herbert Eber**, and **Carl M. Cochran** from the University of North Carolina, and **Ralph Colvin**, **William Dunn**, **Robert R. Alvarez**, **Robert L. Rhyne**, and **John Mallet** from Duke University.

Max M. Levin resigned from the department of psychology, University of Washington, on March 31, 1952, to take the position of training specialist in psychology in the National Institute of Mental Health, United States Public Health Service.

Merle Lawrence is leaving, as of September 1, 1952, his position as associate professor of psychology at Princeton University to join the medical school faculty at the University of Michigan as associate professor of physiologic acoustics in the department of otolaryngology.

The Personnel Research Section, Personnel Research and Procedures Branch, AGO, has announced the following personnel changes in its contract research office, effective approximately July 1, 1952. **Arthur J. Drucker** will replace **Robert Perloff** as assistant contract research officer. **James B. Trump** has recently been assigned to the contract research office. Dr. Drucker, who has been working in the criterion and standards research sub-unit for the past year, and Dr. Perloff are exchanging assignments. The changes reflect the section's policy of maximizing the individual's opportunities for broadened professional experience and increased responsibility. It is anticipated that Dr. Perloff will become acting chief of criterion and standards research under the general direction of **Richard H. Gaylord**. Similarly, it is expected that Dr. Drucker will assume increasing responsibility for contract research. Mr. Trump has been research associate in the Personnel Research Section for approximately a year.

Denzel D. Smith has been appointed head of the personnel and training branch of the Psychological Sciences Division, Office of Naval Research, Department of the Navy. He has been professor of psychology at the University of Maryland and director of the University's counseling center.

Marguerite Young, formerly acting head of the personnel and training branch, has accepted a position in the Biological Sciences Division, National Science Foundation.

William Bevan, Jr., assistant professor of psychology at Emory University, has been awarded a Fulbright fellowship. He will do research at the University of Oslo during the 1952-53 academic year.

Erwin Russell, formerly of the department of psychology at Wabash College, has joined the Milwaukee staff of Rohrer, Hibler & Replogle.

Leonard S. Kogan has been appointed director of the Institute of Welfare Research of the Community Service Society of New York. He is also adjunct professor of psychology at New York University.

John W. Gustad has resigned as director of the counseling service at Vanderbilt University to take the position of associate professor of psychology and director of the university counseling center at the University of Maryland. He began his new duties on July 1.

Ludwig Immergluck, formerly on the faculty at Sarah Lawrence College, has accepted appointment as supervisor of the intensive treatment section service and training unit, clinical psychology service, Veterans Administration Hospital, Palo Alto, California. He began his new duties early in August.

A. J. Pellettieri has accepted the position of professor of psychology and director of the reading clinic at the University of Houston. He formerly held the same positions at Mississippi Southern College.

Harry Sands has resigned his position as instructor in the psychology department of Brooklyn College to become Director of the Committee for Public Understanding of Epilepsy in New York City. This Committee was set up on a grant for the purpose of carrying on public education in the field of epilepsy.

Clark L. Wilson, formerly partner and administrative director, and **Robert R. Mackie**, formerly research psychologist of the Psychological Research Center, are now president and vice-president, re-

spectively, of the Management and Marketing Research Corporation, Los Angeles.

Rhoda Lee Fisher has received the appointment of clinical psychologist for the Southwestern Polio-myelitis Respiratory Center in Houston, Texas.

Paul Bowman of the University of Louisville has been appointed assistant professor of human development at the University of Chicago. He will serve as chief consultant to the Quincy Youth Development Commission. He will head the three-man staff from the University of Chicago which works in the Community Youth Development Project, a cooperative enterprise of the Quincy Commission and the University of Chicago. In this project, children of unusual talent and ability are discovered as early as possible and assisted to develop their talents. Also, children who show signs of future delinquency or emotional disturbance are discovered and given help as early as possible.

Norman L. Munn was granted sabbatical leave by Bowdoin College and sailed in June for New Zealand and Australia, where he is visiting various departments of psychology. He will return to Brunswick in January.

Frederick Wyatt has accepted an appointment as chief of the psychological clinic of the Institute for Human Adjustment at the University of Michigan. He has also been appointed associate professor in the department of psychology.

James G. Cooper, general supervisor in charge of guidance of the Modac County, California, schools, has been teaching this summer at Stanford University.

J. W. M. Rothney, of the department of education at the University of Wisconsin, was cited for his outstanding contribution to the personnel and guidance movement through research at the recent national convention of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. This award is given annually to the member of the association who has made the most outstanding research contribution to the field. Mr. Rothney's award was based upon his publication, with B. A. Roens, of "Guidance of American Youth."

Maurice E. Troyer is on an indefinite leave from Syracuse University to help organize the new

International Christian University in Japan. His main responsibility is in program development, student personnel, and preparation for chartering request. During the planning stage of the program the University is seeking faculty members from abroad who will commit themselves to three years of service. Beyond that period they hope to make use of opportunities for exchange professorships and professors on sabbatical leaves.

W. C. H. Prentice, on sabbatical leave from Swarthmore College during 1952-53, will spend a year on a Guggenheim fellowship at the University of California in Berkeley.

Georgia Lightfoot has been teaching on the summer session staff at the University of Vermont.

Robert E. Bills has been teaching this summer at the University of Florida, Gainesville. He will return to the University of Kentucky for the fall semester.

Leonard D. Carmichael has been awarded an honorary doctor of science degree by Brown University.

J. E. W. Wallin has been awarded the Alpha Phi Omega Alumni Award at Upsala College. The award was made in recognition of his 51 years of achievement in the field of psychology.

Walter Houston Clark has been appointed dean of the Hartford School of Religious Education of the Hartford Seminary Foundation.

Charles A. Dickinson, professor of psychology at the University of Maine, was awarded an honorary doctor of science degree at the 1952 spring commencement exercises of the University of Maine.

The American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, Inc., now consists of the following members and officers: George A. Kelly, president; David Wechsler, vice-president; Noble H. Kelley, secretary-treasurer; Carlyle F. Jacobsen, Jean W. Macfarlane, Harold C. Taylor, Ruth S. Tolman, Austin B. Wood, and C. Gilbert Wrenn.

All correspondence regarding the Board should be addressed to the secretary-treasurer, Dr. Noble H. Kelley, Department of Psychology, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.

The American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, Inc., announces the following

policy concerning examination privileges and examination fees:

"If a candidate fails once to appear for a regularly scheduled written examination for which he has registered and local arrangements have been made by the Secretary-Treasurer, he shall pay an additional fee of fifteen dollars to be admitted to another written examination.

"If a candidate fails twice to appear for a regularly scheduled written examination for which he has registered and local arrangements have been made by the Secretary-Treasurer, his candidacy shall be closed. To be reconsidered, the candidate must file a new application, which must be accompanied by a second candidacy fee of twenty-five dollars."

The American Board of Examiners in Professional Psychology, Inc., announces herewith the award of its diploma to another twelve psychologists in the indicated professional specialties. To date, this represents a total award of 1,087 diplomas. These awards are distributed as follows:

Diploma awarded to senior members of the American Psychological Association with waiver of written and oral examinations	1,046
Diploma awarded to members of the American Psychological Association by satisfactory performance on written and oral examinations	28
Diploma awarded to senior members of the Canadian Psychological Association with waiver of written and oral examinations	13
	<hr/> 1,087

In nine previous issues of the *American Psychologist* (Volume 3, Number 5, May, 1948; Volume 3, Number 8, August, 1948; Volume 4, Number 6, June, 1949; Volume 4, Number 8, August, 1949; Volume 5, Number 6, June, 1950; Volume 5, Number 11, November, 1950; Volume 6, Number 8, August, 1951; Volume 7, Number 1, January, 1952; Volume 7, Number 5, May, 1952), the Board has announced the award of its diploma to 1,047 senior members in professional fields of psychology on the basis of a review of individual qualifications and without written and oral examinations.

The award of diplomas to 28 candidates who have qualified by satisfactory performance on written and oral examinations has been separately announced in the *American Psychologist* (Volume 6,

Number 3, March, 1951; Volume 6, Number 8, August, 1951).

The 1,075 awards previously announced together with the 12 awards presently announced bring the total number of awards to 1,087.

Name	Field
Barrett, Harry O.*	Counseling and Guidance
Bayroff, Abram G.	Industrial
Greene, Katharine B.	Clinical
Laird, Donald A.	Industrial
Lerner, Ruth S.	Counseling and Guidance
Max, Louis W.	Counseling and Guidance
Obenchain, Irving R.	Counseling and Guidance
Pomeroy, Wardell B.	Clinical
Rogers, Kenneth H.*	Counseling and Guidance
Stein, Harry L.*	Counseling and Guidance
Webster, Edward C.*	Industrial
Wolf, Katherine M.	Clinical

* Members of the Canadian Psychological Association.

Newly elected officers of the **New York State Psychological Association** are Harold Seashore, president-elect; Elinor J. Barnes, secretary; Frank S. Freeman and S. D. Shirley Spragg, upstate representatives; Roger T. Lennon and Percival M. Symonds, downstate representatives; Arthur W. Combs and Wallace H. Wulfeck, representatives to the Conference of State Associations. L. Joseph Stone is now president of the Association.

At its last annual meeting the Board of Trustees of the **Ohio Psychological Association** elected Ranald M. Wolfe as treasurer to replace Ronald R. Greene who was elected to the office of president-elect by the membership. Arthur G. Bills is president and Rosina M. Brown is secretary. Carroll L. Shartle has been elected to the board of examiners, replacing John R. Kinzer who is now statutory agent for the Association.

At the request of the New Jersey Parents Group for Retarded Children, the **New Jersey Psychological Association** has appointed a committee to screen and recommend research projects in the field of mental deficiency for financial support by the parents group. For the present, the committee will limit its study to plans submitted by people in the region of the Eastern Psychological Association.

Any significant project, regardless of scope, cost, or subject matter, will be considered by the committee. Projects should be of the sort which will yield results within a year's time and they must be practicable in the sense of being ready to start in

the fall of this year. The committee consists of Warren G. Findley, Elizabeth M. Kelly, Maurice G. Kott, Kermit W. Oberlin, Eloise Oxtoby, Anna S. Starr, and Karl F. Heiser, chairman. Correspondence and research plans should be sent to the committee chairman at The Training School, Vineland, New Jersey.

Present officers of the **Maine Psychological Association** are: John K. McCreary, president; J. Paul Scott, president-elect; E. Parker Johnson, secretary-treasurer; A. Douglas Glanville, delegate to the Conference of State Psychological Associations; Edward N. Brush and Arthur J. Kaplan, executive council.

The newly elected vice-chairman of the **Minnesota State Board of Examiners of Psychologists** is Daniel N. Wiener, and Timothy O'Keefe is a new Board member. One hundred and forty-five state psychologists were certified during the first year of the law.

The annual spring meeting of the **West Virginia Psychological Association** was held on the campus of West Virginia Wesleyan College. The following officers were elected for the coming year: Georgianne Stary, president; Robert P. Fischer, president-elect; James P. Bland, secretary-treasurer; Quin F. Curtis, Kenneth K. Loemker, Herman G. Canady, council representatives. The afternoon session of the meeting was highlighted by a panel discussion on the subject "The Certification of Psychologists in the State of West Virginia." The participants in this panel included C. G. Polan, a well-known psychiatrist from Huntington, West Virginia. The evening program and banquet was featured by an address by James R. Patrick, chairman of the department of psychology at Ohio University, who spoke concerning professional ethics of psychologists and also many of the problems pertaining to the certification of psychologists. A fall meeting is also planned for the State Association in October.

The annual meeting of the **Delaware Psychological Association** will be held on Monday, October 15, in the Wilmington Board of Education Building and Hanna's Restaurant. The following is a plan for the meeting: 12 noon—executive committee luncheon at Winkler's Restaurant; 2 p.m.—business meeting, Board Room, Wilmington Board

of Education; 3–5 p.m.—presentation of papers by members of the group and discussion, Board Room, Wilmington Board of Education; 7 p.m.—dinner meeting with speakers, Hanna's Restaurant. Further information may be obtained from Catharine L. Hultsch, secretary of the Association.

Gordon F. Derner, associate professor of psychology at Adelphi College, was elected the first president of the newly formed **Nassau County (New York) Psychological Association**. Also elected were Mathew N. Chappell as president-elect; Melvyn M. Katz, treasurer; Beverly Weiner, secretary, and Cynthia Deutsch, corresponding secretary.

Rollo May spoke on the psychology of freedom at the annual meeting of the **New York Society of Clinical Psychologists** at the Hotel New Yorker on June 7, 1952 at which time the following new officers were installed: Molly Harrower, president; Max Siegel, president-elect; Emerson Coyle, treasurer; and Doris Schulman, executive secretary.

SPSSI and the Division on the Teaching of Psychology will jointly sponsor a symposium at the APA meetings on "The Problems of Teaching Introductory Social Psychology." One of the issues that has been suggested for discussion concerns the proper use of a textbook in the introductory course. Accordingly, the symposium will feature several of the major social psychology textbook authors together with a person who will argue that the use of a textbook causes more problems than it solves. Other topics suggested have to do with the problem of values; whether "skills" should be taught, etc. In order that this symposium, which will be an informal discussion, will have the maximum practical value, we are inviting all interested teachers to submit, ahead of time, other problems they would like to have discussed. Please write as soon as possible to Dr. Robert P. Holston, Richardson, Bellows, Henry & Company, 439 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

Work Conference in Mental Health Research. An interdisciplinary work conference in mental health research will be held in Washington, D. C., August 29 through 31 under the leadership of Hubert Coffey, John Clausen, and Jerome Frank. This is the fourth in a series of conferences being

conducted under a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health, announced in the *American Psychologist* of August 1951.

The project was established because of the need, expressed by workers in the field, for an exchange of thinking and experience regarding methods and problems of interdisciplinary collaboration in mental health research. The general objective, as stated by the Advisory Committee, is "to stimulate research in mental health through the collaborative study of how the concepts and methods of relevant disciplines may be better understood and used."

Conferences have been held prior to the meetings of the American Anthropological Association, the American Orthopsychiatric Association, and the American Psychiatric Association. These have been concerned with (a) the analysis of specific research projects, (b) consideration of effective methods for carrying on research when an interdisciplinary approach seems indicated and of ways to meet the difficulties which arise, and (c) the questions relevant to mental health which are real issues for the practitioner and on which research should be done. Conference discussions have pointed up the fact that in the development of research plans there has been relatively little anticipation of the problems actually encountered in the research, and as a result, in many instances, projects have been beset with unexpected yet common difficulties without any established pattern for handling them. Through their efforts to analyze the components and processes in interdisciplinary research, the conferences have developed a number of stimulating lines of inquiry, which will in part provide the springboard for the Psychology Work Conference, August 29-31. High lights of this conference which are of particular interest to psychologists will be discussed at a meeting on September 1 as part of the program of the APA. Reports of the conferences will be available through Work Conferences in Mental Health Research, 1201 16th Street N.W., Washington 6, D. C., care of Margaret Barron Luszki, Project Coordinator.

Newly elected officers of Psi Chi, national honorary society in psychology, for a two-year term are Kenneth L. Smoke, chairman of the department of psychology of Gettysburg College, president; Hubert Bonner, professor of psychology, Ohio Wesleyan University, vice-president of the Midwestern Region; and Philip Worchel, associate pro-

fessor of psychology, University of Texas, vice-president of the Southern Region. Terms of office to be continued are those of C. E. Hamilton, vice-president of the Rocky Mountain Region; and David L. Cole, vice-president of the Western Region. Mrs. J. P. Guilford is historian, and Mrs. Bertram R. Forer is national secretary-treasurer.

The Ohio University Chapter of Psi Chi has recently awarded to an outstanding student in psychology, Ann Hammerle, a year's subscription to the *American Psychologist*.

The Aero Medical Association will hold its interim meeting in Paris on September 26-28, 1952. For information, write to Dr. Armand Robert, 2 Rue Marbeuf, Paris 8°, France.

As a part of its interdisciplinary research planning program, the **Organizational Behavior Project** of Princeton University held two conferences during the past academic year. In March the subject was: "Problems of Model Construction in the Social Sciences." Papers were read by: Gregory Bateson, anthropologist; Kenneth Burke, literary critic; Robert R. Bush, mathematical statistician; Karl W. Deutsch, political scientist; James S. Duesenberry, economist; Paul F. Lazarsfeld, sociologist; Frederick Mosteller, mathematical statistician; Alfred Schuetz, sociologist; and Kurt H. Wolff, sociologist. Some of the specific topics discussed at this conference were "Experiences and Prospects in the Use of Models in the Social Sciences," "Changes in Human Relationships and Individual Psychology," "Common-sense and Scientific Model Constructs of Human Action and the Concept of Rationality," and "A Survey of Mathematical Models in the Social Sciences." On June 18-19, the Project and the Social Science Research Council jointly sponsored a conference devoted to the "Theory of Organization." The purposes were to bring together a small number of relatively strategic scholars working on organization theory, to secure and review summary reports of research in progress, and to discuss a limited number of specially prepared papers bearing on major problems in the field of organizational behavior. The four sessions of the conference were built around the following themes: "Patterns of Behavior within Organizations," "Organizational Setting," "Decision-making" and "Theory and Current Research." Papers were presented by Floyd Mann, sociologist; Carroll L. Shartle, psychologist; E. Wight Bakke,

economist; Neil Chamberlain, economist; Harold Stein, political scientist; Herbert Simon, political scientist; Wilbert E. Moore, sociologist; Robert Dubin, sociologist; Melvin Copeland, economist, and Philip Selznick, sociologist. Members of the Organizational Behavior Project are: Wilbert E. Moore, director, sociologist; Richard C. Snyder, political scientist; Elliot G. Mishler, psychologist; James Hund, economist; Henry Bruck, political scientist; Burton Sapin, political scientist; Henry Garfinkle, sociologist; Gordon Turner, historian; Marion Levy, Jr., sociologist; E. O. Edwards, economist; and James Sykes, sociologist.

In cooperation with the Office of Naval Research, the National Research Council's **Committee on Undersea Warfare** has appointed an *ad hoc* Panel on Training under the chairmanship of Kinsley R. Smith of Pennsylvania State College. The other members of the Panel are Neil R. Bartlett, Hobart College; Lee J. Cronbach, University of Illinois; William H. Lichte, University of Missouri; Leonard C. Mead, Tufts College; and W. D. Neff, University of Chicago.

The **Swiss Section of the New Education Fellowship (NEF)** plans to hold an International Seminar for the Psychology of Children's Drawings at the Kuntsgewerbemuseum in Zürich, Switzerland, from the 4th to the 9th of October 1952. The purpose of this seminar will be to clarify and approximate study standards. Further, a considerable advancement in the psychology of children's drawings is to be anticipated.

Beside the Mayor of the City of Zürich and the Director of the Kuntsgewerbemuseum (Johannes Itten), the Institute for Applied Psychology, and the Swiss Association for the Individualpsychology have assumed patronage. The meeting will be carried out in seminar fashion on three successive days by various independent working groups, whereby, on the basis of pure psychological (i.e., diagnostic and therapeutic) treatment of a large exhibition of children's drawings the following questions will be discussed: (a) Are the causes of behavior problems detectable in children's drawings? (b) In which manner do the stages of personality development manifest themselves in children's drawings? (c) Drawing tests. (d) Mental hygiene by means of the child's drawings. (e) The child and color. There will also be opportunity in several

lectures (with discussion) to become acquainted with the latest research developments. Interested persons, including those who wish to contribute to the program from their own work, should communicate with the Secretariat, Mrs. Erena Adelson, Weitegasse 7, Zürich, Switzerland, where a program with the names of the lecturers will be available after July 5, 1952.

Call for Papers: Section I, AAAS. Section I (Psychology) of AAAS will meet on December 29-30 in St. Louis. Abstracts should be submitted to section secretary, Delos D. Wickens, 404 University Hall, The Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio. They should not exceed 600 words excluding title and should include the author's job affiliation along with the name as he would like it to appear on the program. Papers may be submitted by persons who are not members of AAAS. The abstracts should be in the hands of the secretary not later than *September 15, 1952*.

The **American Association on Mental Deficiency** held its seventy-sixth annual meeting in Philadelphia on May 27-31, 1952. Several sessions on psychology were presented. Bertha M. Luckey is president of the Association this year.

The 1953 meeting of the **Society of Experimental Psychologists** will be held at the University of Texas, Austin, Texas, under the chairmanship of Harry Helson. The tentative dates for the meeting are March 30 and 31, 1953.

For the past several months **George W. Kisker**, associate professor of psychology in the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at the University of Cincinnati, has been engaged in the project of making tape recordings of lectures and discussions by outstanding psychologists and psychiatrists in universities throughout the country. These tape recordings are now being made available to colleges and universities in every part of the world. The purpose of the project is to bring to every university the intellectual stimulation afforded by the great minds of our time. Through the recordings every college and university, no matter where it is located or what its facilities are, will be able to offer to its students the words and something of the personalities of the greatest living authorities in a number of fields. The tape-recorded lectures are filed in a library where they will remain until requested by another college or university. Re-

recordings are then made on tape, on standard 78 RPM phonograph records or on long-playing 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ RPM records, depending upon the equipment available at the school where the lectures are to be used. A recording studio has been established in Cincinnati to facilitate the production of tape and disc recordings, and to explore new techniques in the field of audio-education.

The Personnel and Guidance Journal is the new name of the journal formerly called *Occupations*. The first issue under the new name will appear in October.

The Society for the Study of Social Problems will hold its first annual convention at Atlantic City, September 3, 4, and 5 at the Ritz Carlton Hotel during the meetings of the American Sociological Society.

The American Society of Group Psychotherapy and Psychodrama held its tenth annual meeting in New York on May 16, 17, and 18. The papers read were representative of research and experience on a national and cross-disciplinary basis. A "model" constitution patterned after those now in use in other professional societies was accepted. Among other things, the constitution provides for rotation of offices and classification of membership (fellows, members, associates). Membership requirements are, generally, an MD or PhD (psychology, sociology or related fields) and a minimum of one year of experience in research or practice with group psychotherapy. Provision is made for meeting membership requirements on an experience basis. New members must have the sponsorship of at least two members in good standing. Serious students may apply for associate membership, but must obtain sponsorship of at least one member.

Officers of the society are J. L. Moreno, president; R. Dreikurs, president-elect; E. F. Borgatta, secretary-treasurer. The elected council of the society consists of twelve Fellows, with the fields of psychiatry, psychology, and sociology equally represented on the council. Persons interested in further information should communicate with E. F. Borgatta, Laboratory of Social Relations, Harvard University.

A new German journal, *Jahrbuch für Psychologie und Psychotherapie*, will publish its first issue in

September, 1952. At the request of the APA Committee on International Relations, a description of the journal and a subscription blank are being mailed to APA Fellows and Life Members. The publisher is Echter-Verlag, 13a Wurzburg. Orders may be placed through an agent.

The APA office has learned that undergraduate students and students of less than three years' standing may subscribe to the *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology* at a special rate of 15 shillings per volume. Applications should be sent with remittance to The Editor, Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, Psychological Laboratory, Downing Place, Cambridge, England. A statement should be included concerning the university department in which the applicant has worked, and what year he expects to graduate or did graduate.

A Summary of Statistics on the Selective Service College Qualifications Test has now been published by the Educational Testing Service. Because only a limited number of copies was produced, ETS is unable to satisfy extensive requests for copies. However, a copy of the report has been sent to approximately 125 libraries, including the library of each institution granting a PhD degree in education or psychology during the period 1939-1950, the libraries of state universities, and the public library in each of about 30 large cities.

United States Government grants under the Fulbright Act for lecturing or advanced research abroad. Applications for United States Government grants for the academic year 1953-54 for university lecturing and postdoctoral research under the Fulbright Act will be accepted until October 15, 1952, for Austria, Belgium and Luxembourg, Denmark, Egypt, France, Greece, Iraq, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Turkey, the United Kingdom and Colonial Dependencies, the Union of South Africa, and Pakistan. The Conference Board of Associated Research Councils of the Committee on International Exchange of Persons, has issued an announcement which lists the following lecturing awards in psychology and related fields:

Austria: Industrial and applied psychology. Universities of Vienna, Graz and Innsbruck.

Denmark: Psychiatry, with either of two following emphases: training of psychoanalysts or training of clinical psychologists. University of Aarhus.

Egypt: Educational psychology (psychology of learning and development, abnormal psychology, mental hygiene, measurement). Ibrahim University, Cairo.

Italy: Experimental psychology (specialist on electroencephalographic tests). University of Turin.

Japan: Experimental psychology. Tohoku University, Sendai. Behaviorist psychology. Kyoto University. Comparative psychology. Keio University, Tokyo.

Netherlands: Urban psychology. University of Amsterdam. Social psychology. University of Groningen.

Norway: Social psychology. University of Oslo.

Pakistan: General psychology or educational psychology. University of Dacca.

Requests for application forms and for detailed information regarding specific opportunities should be addressed to the Executive Secretary, Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington 25, D. C.

The North Carolina Cerebral Palsy Hospital, Durham, has received a grant for two studies into the motivational processes of cerebral palsied children in relation to parental attitudes, motor performance, and progress in treatment. The research is jointly sponsored by the United Cerebral Palsy Association and the Durham Cerebral Palsy Foundation. Norman Garnezy, assistant professor of psychology at Duke University and psychological consultant to the hospital, will be chief investigator, assisted by Jesse G. Harris, Jr., and Lon Ussery.

The Social Science Research Center at Cornell University has recently established a group of graduate fellowships for students at Cornell. A \$50,000 fund, from a grant made to the Cornell University by the Ford Foundation, will be used for about twenty fellowships over a four-year period. The fellowship program is intended to aid exceptionally able students and to lead to increased research capacity in the behavioral sciences.

Social Science Research Council grants to psychologists. Faculty research fellowships have been awarded to John W. Atkinson for research on motivation and its measurement and to William K. Estes for the construction and testing of mathematical theories of behavior. Harold J. Breen, PhD candidate at the University of Western Ontario; James W. Carper, PhD candidate at The Johns

Hopkins University, and Donald E. Walker, PhD candidate at the University of Chicago, have received research training fellowships. A faculty research grant has been given to Hartwick College to help support the research of Paul M. Orso on the role of religion in marital and family adjustment.

The Public Health Service has recently awarded several research grants in areas of interest to psychologists. A list of the recipients of the grant and the titles of their projects follows:

Harold A. Abramson. Psychological aspects of experimental asthma.

M. B. Bender. Effect of cerebral lesions on visual perception.

Bruno Bettelheim. Relation between therapy and staff selection, training, and administration in psychiatric institutions for children.

E. S. Bordin, A. T. Dittmann, and H. L. Rausch. Analyses of psychotherapeutic interaction.

J. D. Frank. Evaluation of group and individual psychotherapy.

Franz J. Kallmann. Genetic factors in the aging process and in mental illness.

J. Luft. Self-control patterns within families.

I. Arthur Mirsky and Robert A. Patton. Effects of ACTH and other steroids on adaptive responses.

T. W. Richards. Causes of variation in child behavior over a period of years.

J. P. Scott. Effect of age and strain on early behavior patterns.

Philip F. D. Seitz. Effects of early postnatal experiences upon adult reactions to stress.

L. L. Thurstone. Studies of primary mental abilities.

The psychology department of **Louisiana State University** announces that beginning in September 1952, a program leading to a PhD in clinical psychology will be initiated. Four stipends, two at \$1,200 and two at \$1,500, will be awarded among students selected for the program.

For additional information and necessary application blanks, write to Dr. Graham B. Bell, Department of Psychology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge 3, Louisiana.

Convention Calendar

AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION
September 1-6, 1952; Washington, D. C.

For information write to:

Dr. Fillmore H. Sanford
1515 Massachusetts Avenue N.W.
Washington 5, D. C.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE
ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE

December 26-31, 1952; St. Louis, Missouri

For information write to:

Dr. Raymond L. Taylor
1515 Massachusetts Avenue N.W.
Washington 5, D. C.

Provocative Contemporary Problems

THE RANGE OF HUMAN CAPACITIES

New Second Edition

By DAVID WECHSLER, Ph.D., *Chief Psychologist, Psychiatric Division, Bellevue Hospital, New York City; Adjunct Professor of Psychology, Graduate School of Arts and Sciences; Associate Clinical Professor of Medical Psychology, College of Medicine, New York University*

Do men really differ enormously from each other?

What are the limits of human variability?

What constitutes a capacity?

Wechsler answers these and many other questions of vital interest to the modern psychologist.

Wechsler summarizes our knowledge regarding individual differences—more specifically those aspects of it which bear on the limits and range of human capacities—and draws important inferences from the available data.

Wechsler's facts and generalizations may surprise you: he treats many of his collected data in an unfamiliar way, and many of his conclusions are at variance with current opinions on the subject.

Wechsler's conclusions bear on essential social questions: the status of democracy, the problem of technocracy in relation to human efficiency, the suggested attempts at social reorganization on the basis of abilities and needs as contrasted to geographical distributions and caste systems, etc.

Second edition completely revised, with two new chapters, and many others rewritten and expanded. The first edition has been out of print for some years.

201 pp.

13 figs.

\$4.00

The Williams & Wilkins Company

Mt. Royal and Guilford Aves.

Baltimore 2, Maryland

a new appraisal

IMPROVING UNDERGRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN PSYCHOLOGY

*Report of a study group supported by the
Carnegie Corporation of New York and
the Grant Foundation which met at Cornell
University, June 27-August 16, 1951.*

CONTRIBUTORS

CLAUDE E. BUXTON, *Yale University*; CHARLES N. COFER,
University of Maryland; JOHN W. GUSTAD, *Vanderbilt University*;
ROBERT B. MACLEOD, *Cornell University*; WILBERT J.
McKEACHIE, *University of Michigan*; DAEL WOLFLE, Chairman,
Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training.

Here some top men in the field set forth their recommendations for the improvement of the undergraduate curriculum in psychology. They present an outline of the specific courses in their suggested curriculum, discuss possible solutions to problems that might arise in effecting this program, and tell how it can be adapted to various types of colleges. *Ready in the Fall.*

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

60 Fifth Avenue New York 11

a new book

FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS IN CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

G. WILSON SHAFFER

RICHARD S. LAZARUS

The Johns Hopkins University

McGraw-Hill Publications in Psychology

Ready in September

- ▶ "The field of clinical psychology is an extremely complex one, and moving about in it with ease and assurance requires a breadth of understanding that is not easily attained. It is therefore not surprising to find that a clear pathway of progressive study has not been provided for the student of clinical psychology. . . .
- ▶ "The books available to the student are either specialized manuals for the clinician or books devoted to measurement or evaluation.
- ▶ "The present book, recognizing these facts, represents an effort to present a systematic and integrated group of topics that are fundamental to satisfactory movement in the clinical field. The emphasis of the book is placed on theory and methodology and is therefore directed both to the beginning student in clinical psychology and to the person who has developed some competence with clinical techniques. For the beginning student the book should serve as an introduction to later training and practice.
- ▶ "The book encourages the student to become something more than a technician who administers and interprets tests and helps him to develop a greater responsibility for making progress in the development of knowledge and procedures. The reader is urged persistently to develop the critical faculty which is so badly needed in the clinical field. . . ."—from the Preface

SEND FOR A COPY ON APPROVAL

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, Inc.

330 West 42nd Street

New York 36, N.Y.

